

CATECHOL 2,3-DIOXYGENASE-ASSISTED CLEAVAGE OF AROMATICS BY
“ANAEROBIC” TERMITES GUT SPIROCHETES AND GENOMIC EVIDENCE OF A
COMPLETE *META*-PATHWAY

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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

As a young child I grew up in South Boston, or *Southie*. My family and I lived in a brick house that stood on the top of “Pill Hill” (named for the doctors and dentists who built homes and practiced there around the turn of the last century) at the center of the main street of the neighborhood, Broadway. Depending on a Westerly or Easterly direction, I could follow Broadway to the public housing projects or to Boston proper – an epicenter of cultural, artistic, and scholarly diversity. My house was a pivotal point from which my life began, and my early childhood in *Southie* left an indelible mark motivating me to continually challenge myself and strive for better while simultaneously giving back.

Accordingly, first and foremost I would like to thank my mother, father, and younger brother, Gerald, who have believed in my potential, given me the right balance of guidance and freedom to choose my own path, and been genuinely invested in my success from the start. Members of my extended family have also been unparalleled role models and supporters, and I would like to thank my grandparents, William Spencer and Janet Van Dyke, my late grandmother, Betty Lucey, my Godfather, Michael Owens, and my Aunt Carole, Uncle Jim, Aunt Lynn, Uncle Greg, Uncle Dave, and Dave Roberts.

Beginning at Wellesley College, I embarked upon a path in the sciences in hopes of both contributing solutions to the STEM-related challenges our society and

environment is facing, and inspiring others to engage in STEM also. My professors and mentors at Wellesley College, specifically Professor Dave Ellerby and Professor Mary Allen, were integral in helping me initiate my path in the sciences. I would also like to thank Wellesley College, in general, for focusing on undergraduate learning, including a laboratory component with nearly every science class, and providing undergraduates with original research opportunities and prominent responsibility in the lab. My undergraduate experience has played a significant role in where I am today and where I am going.

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I am grateful for the top-notch education and laboratory research opportunities I have had to date, and will continue to strive to move the field of environmental microbial forward as well as teach and mentor the next generation of microbial ecologists. At the very least, I hope to instill in others a technological literacy and appreciation for science even if they do not also pursue STEM careers. Those who have been with me along this journey have been excellent teachers, mentors, scientists, and role models, and I aspire to serve others like you all have inspired me.

ABSTRACT

The termite hindgut microbial ecosystem functions like a miniature lignocellulose-metabolizing natural bioreactor, has significant implications to nutrient cycling in the terrestrial environment, and represents an array of microbial metabolic diversity. Deciphering the intricacies of this microbial community to obtain as complete a picture as possible of how it functions as a whole, requires a combination of various traditional and cutting-edge bioinformatic, molecular, physiological, and culturing approaches. Isolates from this ecosystem, including *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 as well as *T. azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9, have been significant resources for better understanding the termite system. While not all functions predicted by the genomes of these three isolates are demonstrated *in vitro*, these isolates do have the capacity for several metabolisms unique to spirochetes and critical to the termite system's reliance upon lignocellulose. In this thesis, work culturing, enriching for, and isolating diverse microorganisms from the termite hindgut is discussed. Additionally, strategies of members of the termite hindgut microbial community to defend against O₂-stress and to generate acetate, the "biofuel" of the termite system, are proposed. In particular, catechol 2,3-dioxygenase and other *meta*-cleavage catabolic pathway genes are described in the "anaerobic" termite hindgut spirochetes *T. primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2, and the first evidence for aromatic ring cleavage in the phylum (division) *Spirochetes* is also presented. These results suggest that the potential for O₂-dependent, yet non-respiratory, metabolisms of plant-derived aromatics should be re-evaluated in termite hindgut communities. Potential future work is also illustrated.

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CHAPTER 1

Research with termite hindgut microorganisms & background

ABSTRACT:

Microbial ecology research requires a combination of traditional and cutting-edge bioinformatic, culturing, physiological, and molecular, as well as *in vitro*, *in vivo*, and *in situ* approaches. Several of these techniques were utilized to obtain the results presented here, which provide a foundation for research discussed in subsequent chapters. First, to improve growth rates of the *Treponema* termite hindgut isolates that have been continuously passaged for over a decade in 4YACo medium, growth was evaluated on media prepared with yeast autolysate from different brands and packaging of baker's yeast. While doubling time on medium with Red Star yeast autolysate had increased from between 22 and 35hrs to between 54 and 77hrs since the *Treponema* isolates were initially obtained, growth rates on medium with Fleischmann's yeast autolysate markedly improved to 47hrs for *T. primitia* str. ZAS-2. Next, in an effort to obtain additional termite hindgut microbial community members in pure culture, successful enrichment cultures of methanogens were prepared initially as a primer in the enrichment and isolation procedure. Then a spirochete, *T. primitia* str. "ZNS-1," was isolated from the *Zootermopsis nevadensis* termite hindgut. This strain is morphologically similar to *T. primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2, shares 100% 16S rRNA sequence identity with *T. primitia* str. ZAS-2 and 99% 16S rRNA sequence identity with *T. primitia* str. ZAS-1, and exhibits preliminary physiological evidence of $H_2 + CO_2$ acetogenesis. Efforts to isolate the termite hindgut microbial community member encoding the "ZnD2Sec" phylotype, the

phylotype that is responsible for the majority of the formate dehydrogenase expression in the termite hindgut, however, were unsuccessful. Nevertheless, enrichment cultures targeting this organism were successfully used as templates for microfluidic digital PCR and helped correlate the “ZnD2Sec” phylotype with a deltaproteobacteria and not a spirochete as previously thought. Finally, *T. primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 lack hallmark mechanisms of dealing with oxidative stress, specifically catalase and superoxide dismutase. It is likely that they have other strategies and relationships with O₂ in their environment that are explored here and also relevant to work discussed in Chapter 3. Much of the research presented in this chapter has the potential for continued work in the future.

INTRODUCTION:

Termites and their mutualistic hindgut microbiota

Betraying their small size, termites are organisms with a big impact. Their influence on ecosystems arises from both their unique behavior patterns and their numerical abundance (Wood & Sands 1978). Photosynthetic fixation of CO₂ yields the earth's most abundant form of biomass, lignocellulosic plant material (Breznak & Brune 1994). Termites, as well as only a few other arthropods, have the unique ability to metabolize lignocellulose from living plants and plant materials at various stages of decomposition (Wood 1976; Brune 1998a). This includes wood, grasses, roots, and soil organic matter among other diverse substrates (Wood 1976; Brune 1998a). Moreover, while termites are entirely terrestrial and are restricted to within 45°N and S latitudes, arid regions, and altitudes under 3000m, they cover more than half of the world's land surface (Wood & Johnson 1986). Therefore, termites have been

recognized as ecosystem engineers, facilitating the decomposition of the planet's most abundant yet enzymatically-recalcitrant biopolymers and other aspects of soil function (Breznak & Brune 1994; Sugimoto *et al.* 2000).

Early studies investigating how termites metabolize lignocellulose into nutrients and energy observed that a considerable portion of the termite's biomass is devoted to its intestinal tract as is typical of animals that consume materials that are difficult to digest (Fig. 1-1) (Wood & Johnson 1986).



Fig. 1-1: A phylogenetically “lower” termite, a dampwood termite *Zootermopsis nevadensis* worker, and a dissected intestinal tract of another *Z. nevadensis* worker specimen. The termite intestinal tract represents a large portion of the insect's biomass (Wood & Johnson 1986). Specimen collected from San Gabriel Mountains, Pasadena, CA. Scale bar represents 25mm. Both images are to the same scale. (Figure courtesy of the Leadbetter Lab).

Within this intestinal tract, and especially in the largest and most dilated region, the hindgut, a complex, obligate, and nutritionally-symbiotic hindgut microbial

community was discovered (Fig. 1-1) (Leidy 1877; Cleveland 1926; Hungate 1955; Yamin & Trager 1979; Yamin 1980). Although termites are infamous for their ability to devour wood and do contribute enzymes to lignocellulose digestion, it is their complex microbial community comprising upwards of 10^6 microorganisms and representing over 200 species that is integral to metabolizing lignocellulose into nutrients and energy to support the termite system (Leidy 1877; Cleveland 1926; Hungate 1955; Yamin & Trager 1979; Yamin 1980). While the symbiotic association of termites with microorganisms comprises different levels of interaction, ranging from the extracorporal cultivation of fungus gardens to the most intimate associations where bacteria reside intracellularly, the majority of the prokaryotic symbionts of termites are located in the intestinal tract either free-living, attached to the gut epithelium, or associated with intestinal protozoa (Brune 2006).

As termites are recognized for their unusual ability to metabolize lignocellulose, the metabolic capabilities of these microorganisms are also unique. Together, termites and their hindgut microbiota are prime examples of miniature natural bioreactors in the terrestrial environment (Brune 1998a).

“Higher” and “lower” termite lineages

Termites belong to the order Isoptera consisting of over 2000 living species represented by seven families whose biology, behavior, and nutrition are diverse (Breznak & Brune 1994). Members of the first six families are referred to collectively as the “lower” termites and members of the seventh family are referred to as the “higher” termites (Fig. 1-2).

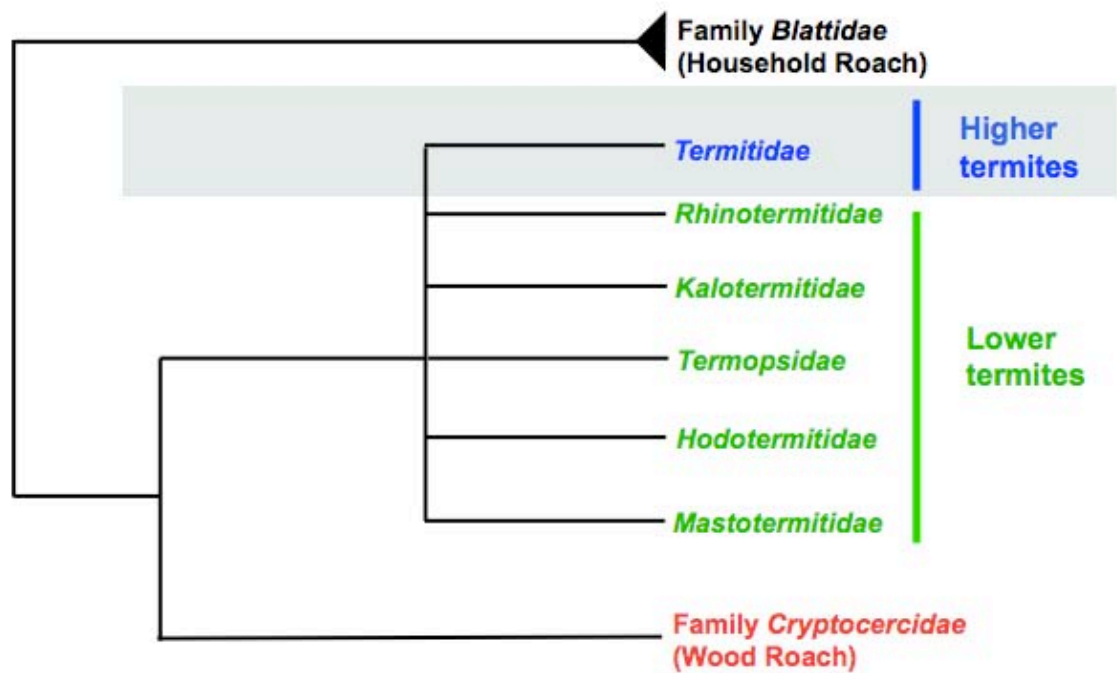


Fig. 1-2: Phylogram of “higher” and “lower” termite families as well as household and wood roaches. Phylogenetically “higher” termites, the most species-rich and abundant lineage of termites, are represented by one family, and “lower” termites are represented by six families. Much more is known about “lower” termites than “higher” termites (Wood & Johnson 1986; Breznak & Brune 1994). Tree adapted from, and based upon, phylogenetic analyses reported by Inward *et al.* 2007.

Although “higher” termites comprise only one family, they are the most species-rich and abundant of the termite lineages. “Higher” termites are more evolved than their “lower” termite counterparts (Fig. 1-2), and distinctions are also seen with respect to intestinal tract architecture (Figs. 1-2 and 1-3), gut microbial community composition, and food preference (Wood & Johnson 1986; Breznak & Brune 1994).



Fig. 1-3: A phylogenetically “higher” termite, a *Gnathamitermes* sp. worker, and a dissected intestinal tract of another worker *Gnathamitermes* sp. specimen. The intestinal tracts of “higher” termites are more compartmentalized than those of “lower” termites (Wood & Johnson 1986; Breznak & Brune 1994). Specimen collected from subterranean nests at Joshua Tree National Park, CA (Ottesen & Leadbetter 2011). Scale bar represents 25mm. Both images are to the same scale. (Figure courtesy of the Leadbetter Lab).

First, the gut architecture of “higher” termites is more complex than that of “lower” termites, with the intestinal tracts of “higher” termites being more compartmentalized than those of “lower” termites (Figs. 1-2 and 1-3). Also, the gut microbial community of “lower” termites consists of members representing all three domains of life, the bacteria, archaea, and eukarya such as cellulolytic oxymonad, trichomonad, and hypermastigote protozoa (Wood & Johnson 1986). In contrast, the gut microbial community of most “higher” termites is made up of bacteria and archaea only. These differences are also reflected in general diet trends with “lower” termites generally consuming lignocellulosic plant materials at early stages

of decomposition, and “higher” termites generally consuming lignocellulosic plant materials that have been modified (Wood & Johnson 1986). Some species of phylogenetically “higher” termites also metabolize lignocellulose, but without polysaccharide-fermenting protozoal symbionts (Wood & Johnson 1986; Warnecke *et al.* 2007). Much less is known about “higher” termites than “lower” termites, particularly concerning how they metabolize diverse lignocellulosic substrates.

Lignocellulose

Lignocellulose is the structural polymer in the cell walls and middle lamellae of most higher plants (Breznak & Brune 1994). This compound is also the earth’s most abundant form of biomass, and represents a considerable reservoir of carbon. Soil invertebrates, such as termites, help cycle lignocellulose through physical dispersion and initial dissimilation of this polymer. Microorganisms, however, play the largest role in the cycling of lignocellulose via further degradation and, ultimately, respiration (Breznak & Brune 1994).

The metabolism of lignocellulose is nontrivial, as the compound’s complex biochemical structure renders it difficult to degrade. The major constituents of lignocellulose are three polymers: cellulose, hemicelluloses, and lignin (Breznak & Brune 1994). In particular, cellulose is a highly-ordered, crystalline, homopolymer of β -linked glucose molecules. As a result of intra- and inter-molecular hydrogen bonding within the molecule, cellulose confers to lignocellulose inelasticity, tensile strength, and resistance to hydrolysis. Hemicellulose is a linear or branched heteropolysaccharide comprised mainly of D-xylose, D-mannose, L-arabinose,

and/or D-galactose. Hemicellulose covalently links with lignin and forms an intricate matrix that surrounds the orderly cellulose microfibrils and impedes the enzymatic degradation of the entire lignocellulose molecule. Lignin, the third and most resistant of the three components to enzymatic degradation, is an aromatic polymer consisting of non-repetitive phenylpropane subunits randomly lined by various C-C and ether bonds. Lignin is intimately interspersed, and covalently linked at various points, with hemicellulose to form a matrix surrounding the orderly cellulose microfibrils and to protect them from enzymatic hydrolysis (Fig. 1-4) (Breznak & Brune 1994).

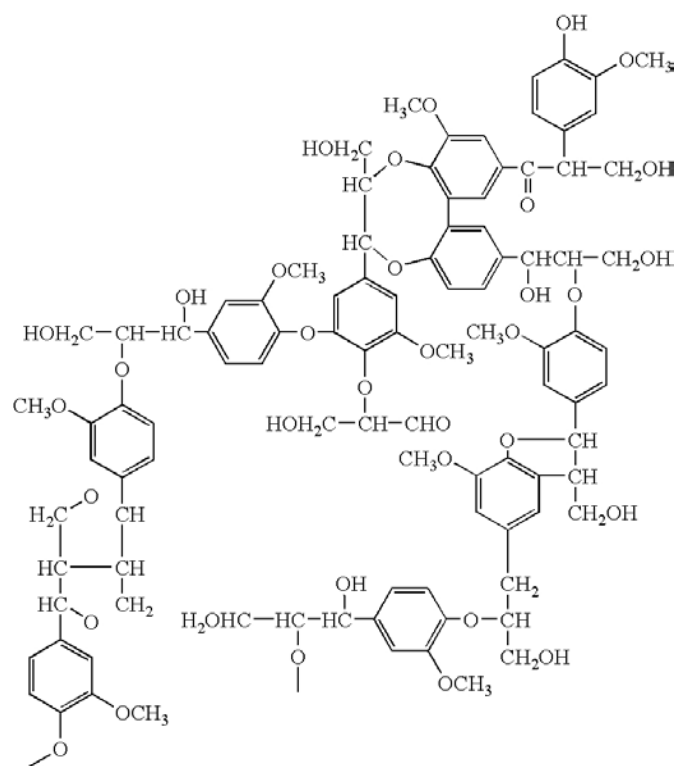


Fig. 1-4: An example of the structure of lignin. Lignin is an aromatic polymer consisting of non-repetitive phenylpropane subunits randomly linked by various C-C bonds. Lignin is also the component of lignocellulose most resistant to enzymatic degradation. This is due to the stability imparted by its aromatic rings (Breznak & Brune 1994) (*figure from www.freepatentsonline.com*).

The proportions of these three constituents vary depending on the type of plant material, and cellulose can represent anywhere from 30-50% of the lignocellulose molecule, with hemicellulose and lignin each constituting 20-30% (Breznak & Brune 1994). Woody plants contain a higher portion of lignin relative to other plant types, and there is an inverse correlation between the lignin content of plant material and its digestibility (Breznak & Brune 1994). The ability to modify and/or metabolize the lignin component of lignocellulose, therefore, is central to carbon turnover in the natural environment.

Lignocellulose metabolism by “lower” termites

Research with wood-feeding, phylogenetically “lower” termites has generated a near complete picture of how “lower” termites and their microbial symbionts collectively metabolize lignocellulose into nutrients and energy (Fig. 1-5).

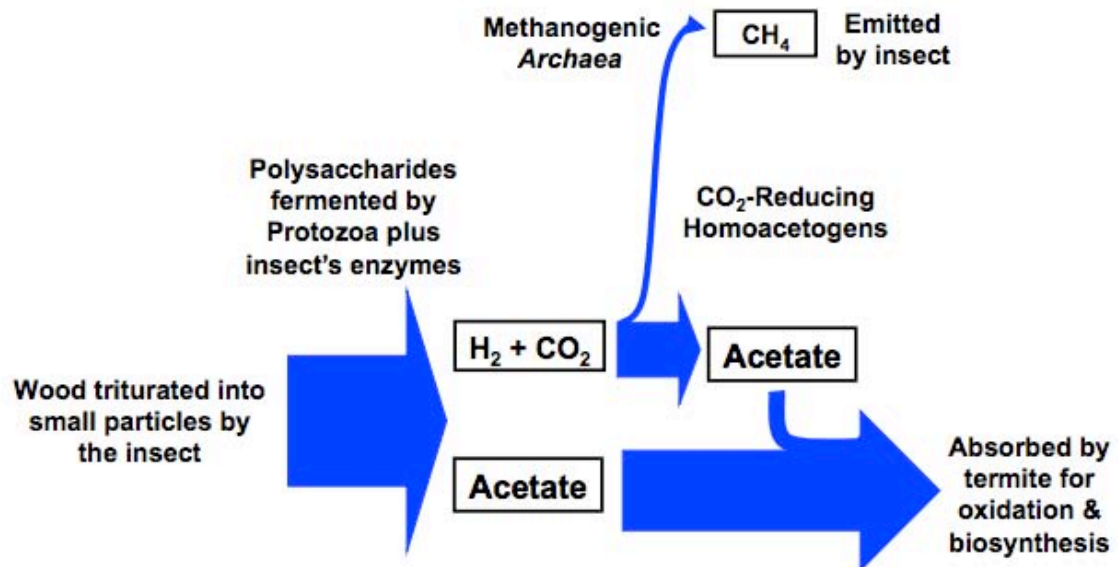


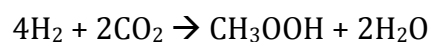
Fig. 1-5: General scheme underlying the symbiosis between wood-feeding “lower” termites and their mutualistic hindgut microbiota. Acetate is the “biofuel” of the termite system (Odelson & Breznak 1983; Breznak & Switzer 1986; Breznak 1994;

Leadbetter *et al.* 1999; Tholen & Brune 2000; Graber & Breznak 2004; Graber *et al.* 2004). First, symbiotic hindgut protozoa hydrolyze wood polysaccharides and ferment the resulting sugar monomers into acetate as well as CO₂ and H₂. Methanogenic archaea convert some this CO₂ and H₂ into methane, but the majority of this CO₂ and H₂ is converted into additional acetate by CO₂-reducing homoacetogens (Cleveland 1926; Hungate 1955; Yamin & Trager 1979; Yamin 1980; Odelson & Breznak 1983; Breznak & Switzer 1986; Breznak 1994; Leadbetter *et al.* 1999). The fate of lignin in the system, however, remains contentious (Butler & Buckerfield 1979; Cookson 1987; Pasti *et al.* 1990; Kuhnigk *et al.* 1994). (*Figure courtesy of the Leadbetter Lab*).

Initially, symbiotic hindgut protozoa hydrolyze wood polysaccharides, such as cellulose and hemicellulose, and ferment the resulting sugar monomers into acetate, CO₂, and H₂ according to the reaction:



(Fig. 1-5) (Odelson & Breznak 1983; Breznak & Brune 1994; Brune 1998a). Next, prokaryotic microorganisms in the hindgut either use some of the resulting H₂ and CO₂ to produce methane (as is the case with methanogenic archaea), or convert most of that H₂ and CO₂ into an additional acetate molecule (as is the case with homoacetogenic bacteria such as spirochetes) according to the following:



(Fig. 1-5) (Brauman *et al.* 1992; Leadbetter *et al.* 1999). These products are then absorbed and oxidized by the termite host for both nutrition and energy (Odelson & Breznak 1983; Brauman *et al.* 1992; Brune 1998a). Acetate is an oxidizable energy source as well as a precursor of amino acids, hydrocarbons, and terpenes (Brauman *et al.* 1992).

Although the termite system has been found to dissimilate 75-99% of cellulose and 65%-90% of the hemicellulose, much less is known about the fate of lignin in the termite system, and research to that end is contentious (Butler & Buckerfield 1979; Cookson 1987; Pasti *et al.* 1990; Kuhnigk *et al.* 1994). Reliably measuring C¹⁴-labelled lignins before, during, and after passage through the termite gut tract is challenging (Butler & Buckerfield 1979; Cookson 1987; Pasti *et al.* 1990; Kuhnigk *et al.* 1994). Many studies have hypothesized that O₂ is a necessary co-substrate for the complete degradation of lignin aromatic monomers (Brune 1998b).

Physical parameters of termite hindgut environment

Environmental conditions inside the termite intestinal tract affect microbial metabolism and lignocellulose digestion (Zimmer & Brune 2005). Likewise, microbial activity also partly determines physiological gut conditions such as pH level (Appel 1993; Zimmer & Topp 1997), redox potential (Bignell 1984; Kappler & Brune 2002), and oxygen concentration (Bignell 1984; Brune *et al.* 1995a and b). Combined, physical parameters innate to the termite intestinal tract and imparted by the inhabiting complex microbial community may have adapted over evolutionary time for efficient metabolism of lignocellulose (Zimmer & Brune 2005).

Initial investigations into the physiochemical conditions of the gut deemed the environment an anoxic habitat in which anaerobic microorganisms ferment wood polysaccharides into nutrients and energy (Cleveland 1926; Hungate 1955; Brune 1998a). Nevertheless, a termite hindgut is surrounded by tissues aerated by the insect's tracheal system, and subsequent studies determined that as a result of its

small size and relatively large surface-area-to-volume ratio, not only is the hindgut environment partially oxic, but the majority of its volume, approximately 60%, contains some level of oxygen between 50 to 100 μM at the hindgut epithelium before reaching anoxia within about 150 to 200 μm of the wall (Fig. 1-6) (Brune *et al.* 1995a and b; Tholen *et al.* 1997; Brune 1998a and b; Graber & Breznak 2004; Zimmer & Brune 2005).

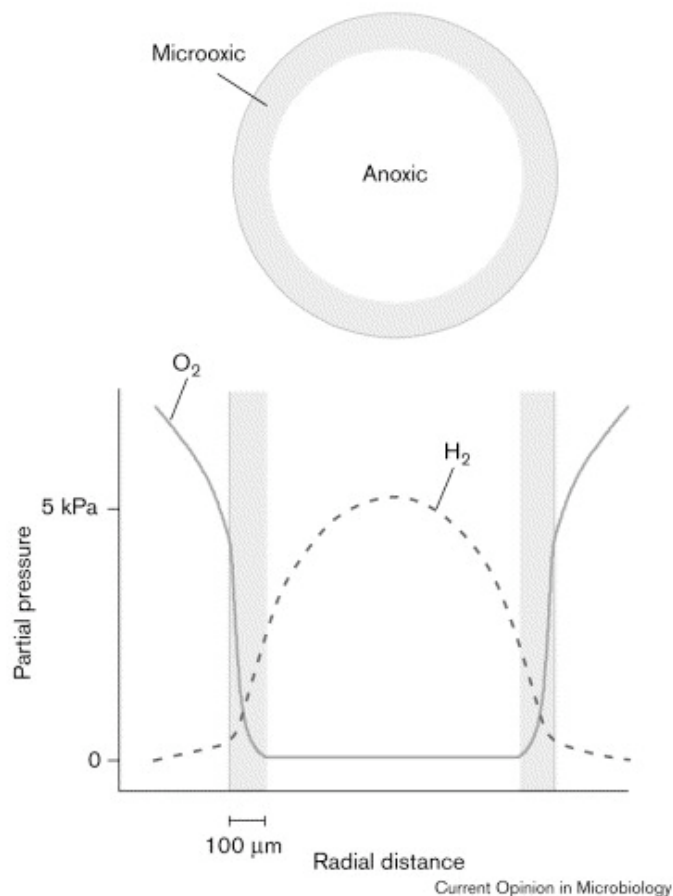


Fig. 1-6: Radial profile of O_2 (and H_2) in the hindgut of the wood-feeding termite *Reticulitermes flavipes* (figure from Brune & Friedrich 2000). Approximately 60% of the hindgut's volume contains some level of oxygen between 50 to 100 μM at the hindgut epithelium before reaching anoxia within about 150 to 200 μm of the wall. This characteristic has implications to microbial metabolisms in the hindgut (Brune *et al.* 1995a and b; Tholen *et al.* 1997; Brune 1998a and b; Graber & Breznak 2004; Zimmer & Brune 2005).

In particular, a radial oxygen gradient spans from the hindgut's periphery to its center, with oxygen concentrations near the hindgut epithelium 50 to 100 μ M and decreasing steeply to anoxia within about 150 to 200 μ m of the wall (Fig. 1-6) (Brune *et al.* 1995a). The discovery that the hindgut contains various levels of oxygen and only central portions of the hindgut are anoxic opened the possibility that the termite gut community consists of microorganisms with varying degrees of oxygen tolerance and metabolisms (Brune *et al.* 1995b; Tholen *et al.* 1997; Wenzel *et al.* 2002; Zimmer & Brune 2005; Wertz & Breznak 2007a; Wertz & Breznak 2007b).

More-recent studies of the gut microflora have confirmed the presence of large numbers of microorganisms with varying degrees of O₂-tolerance (Tholen *et al.* 1997; Wenzel *et al.* 2002; Wertz & Breznak 2007a; Wertz & Breznak 2007b). Given that products of incomplete reduction of O₂, such as superoxide radical (O₂^{•-}), hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂), hydroxyl radical (HO[•]), and singlet oxygen (^{*}O₂), can seriously damage intracellular macromolecules as well as whole cells, some of the more aerotolerant members may possess enzymatic adaptations to combat oxidative stress and maintain anoxic conditions necessary for the survival and functioning of the microbial hindgut community (Brune 1998a and b; Brioukhanov & Netrusov 2007).

“Lower” termite hindgut isolates *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 and *T. azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9

Spirochetes are highly motile, spiral or undulate bacteria and are one of the most abundant, consistently present, and morphologically distinct groups of prokaryotes in termite hindguts (Breznak & Brune 1994; Graber & Breznak 2004). The hindguts of termites, in fact, host a diversity of spirochetes unparalleled by any other habitat on earth (Leadbetter *et al.* 1999). Three spirochetes from phylogenetically “lower” termites have been isolated in pure culture: *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 and *T. azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9, from which metabolic activities hitherto unknown to be performed by spirochetes have been found (Fig. 1-7a and b) (Leadbetter *et al.* 1999; Graber *et al.* 2004).

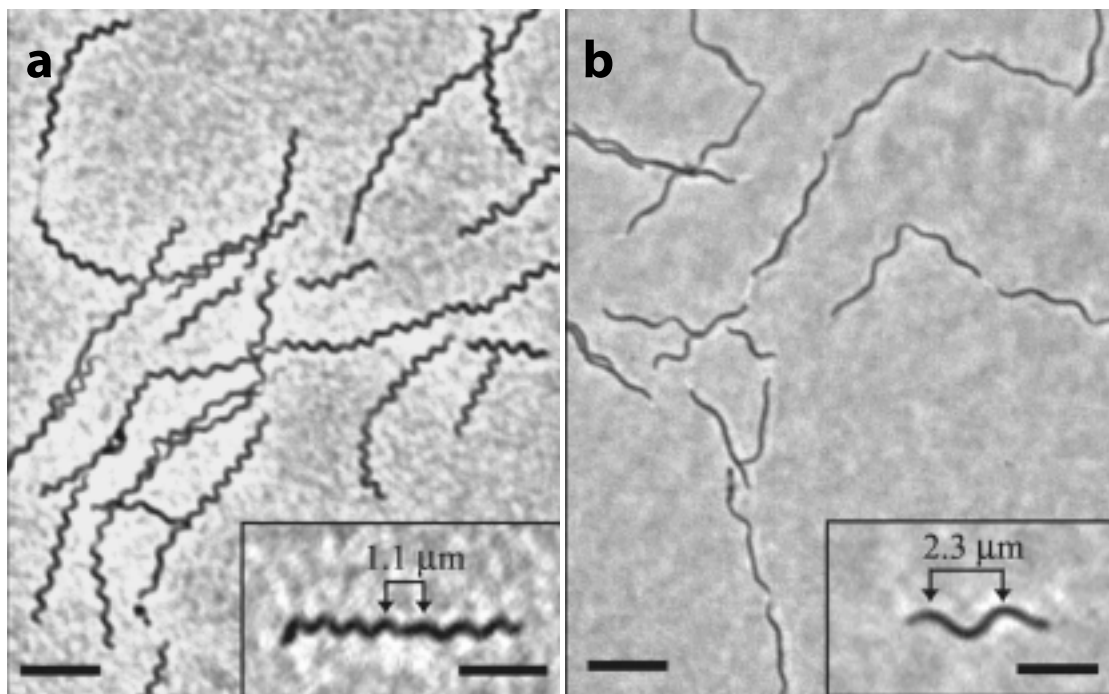


Fig. 1-7: *Treponema azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9 **(a)** and *T. primitia* str. ZAS-2 **(b)**. *T. primitia* str. ZAS-1 is morphologically indistinguishable from *T. primitia* str. ZAS-2. Scale bars represent 5µm (figure from Graber *et al.* 2004).

T. primitia str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 are able to derive acetate from H₂ plus CO₂ according to the Wood-Ljungdahl pathway of carbon fixation, and *T. azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9 is capable of N₂ fixation (Graber & Breznak 2004). Both of these processes are important in the delivery of carbon, nitrogen, and energy to termites (Odelson & Breznak 1983). Equally significant are the implications for lignocellulose degradation as well as carbon turnover in the environment as a result of these organisms' metabolisms (Warnecke *et al.* 2007).

Leveraging diverse laboratory tools to study complex microbial communities

It is widely known that the vast majority of microorganisms in the natural environment have yet to be obtained in pure culture. Consequently, in the last decades the microbiology field has witnessed an upsurge in the development of bioinformatic and molecular techniques and tools to better understand who these microorganisms are and how they function in their natural environments (Ottesen *et al.* 2006).

Multiplex microfluidic digital-PCR is an excellent tool developed in the Leadbetter Lab for linking functional genes to 16S rRNA genes for bacterial identification to better understand *who* in a mixed sample is capable of doing *what* (Ottesen *et al.* 2006). In addition, the 62Mb P3 hindgut region metagenome from the “higher” termite, *Nasutitermes* sp. has been a significant resource in investigating the functions potentially imparted by the mutualistic hindgut microbial community in the “higher” termite system (Warnecke *et al.* 2007). Moreover, this metagenomic dataset can be used to provide hints at obtaining microorganisms from the “higher”

termite in pure culture, as well as compared and contrasted against what is known about the “lower” termite system (Warnecke *et al.* 2007).

As technologies continue to develop, many researchers are combining various bioinformatic, molecular, physiological, and culturing tools to ask and answer *who, what, where, when, how, how much, with whom, and why* (Rosenthal *et al. in review*).

MATERIALS & METHODS:

Termite collection and storage

Worker specimens of the phylogenetically “lower” dampwood termite, *Zootermopsis nevadensis*, were collected in the San Gabriel Mountains, Pasadena, CA. In lab these specimens were maintained in plastic boxes with wood from which they were collected, and boxes were stored at room temperature, at 95% humidity, and in foil-covered glass aquaria.

Phylogenetically “higher” termite specimens were collected from Joshua Tree Natural Park, CA. In lab, these specimens were also maintained in plastic boxes with wood and/or soil from which they were collected, and boxes were stored at room temperature and humidity, and in the dark. If an isolate from the gut microbial community of one of these “higher” termites had been obtained, the termites would have been classified morphologically and their identity would have been determined via cytochrome oxidase gene sequencing (Warnecke *et al.* 2007).

Media and cultivation

Routine *in vitro* growth and maintenance of *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 as well as *T. azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9, was in 5mL 4YACo liquid medium in 25mL butyl rubber-stoppered Balch tubes as previously described (Leadbetter *et al.* 1999; Graber & Breznak 2004; Graber *et al.* 2004). After isolation, *T. primitia* str. “ZNS-1,” (see below) was grown in the same media and under the same conditions as *T. primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2. All cultures were incubated in the dark, at room temperature, in a horizontal position, and without agitation.

Yeast autolysate

While maximum growth yields of *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 as well as *T. azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9, reaching between $OD_{600nm} = 0.8$ and 1.0 in 4YACo medium under normal culture conditions, had not changed markedly since their isolation growth rates had increased, and thus improving the growth rates of these isolates was the focus of the work presented here (Leadbetter *et al.* 1999; Graber & Breznak 2004; Graber *et al.* 2004). In an effort to improve the growth rates of these isolates in 4YACo medium, growth rates were compared on media comprised of yeast autolysate prepared from different brands and different packaging types within the same brand of baker’s yeast. Several yeast autolysate preparations were considered because yeast from different brands and different packaging types within the same brand looked and smelled different (Table 1-1). Growth rates of *T. primitia* str. ZAS-2, specifically, were evaluated on the assumption that yeast autolysate preparations that led to growth rate improvements of this strain would also lead to growth rate improvements of the other *Treponema* isolates.

Autolysate was prepared as previously described and the different batches were prepared simultaneously and identically (Leadbetter *et al.* 1999). Yeast autolysate was prepared from Fleischmann's brand active dry yeast (from large medium, and small packages), SAF brand active dry yeast (from large and small packages), and Red Star brand active dry yeast (from large and small packages). Large packages ranged from 454g to 908g, small packages ranged from 7g to 21g, and medium packaging describes a jar of 113g. All brands and package types contained sorbitan monostearate.

Enrichments and isolation

Methanogens were enriched for from phylogenetically "lower" (*Zootermopsis nevadensis* workers) termites, and acetogenic spirochetes were enriched for from both "lower" and "higher" termites. 4YACo liquid medium was used for both spirochete and methanogen enrichments, and was prepared with yeast autolysate made from jars of Fleischmann's brand active dry yeast as this brand and packaging type of baker's yeast was found to improve growth rates of *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-2 (Table 1-2) (Leadbetter *et al.* 1999; Graber & Breznak 2004; Graber *et al.* 2004). This liquid medium was supplemented with all *Treponema* media vitamins and cofactors, a mixture of B12 vitamin formulations (100mg/300mL each of vitamin B12 (ICN Biomedicals Inc.), hydroxocobalamin acetate (Sigma), and hydroxocobalamin-HCl (Sigma)), 1.875g/50mL xylan, and a sugar cocktail of 3.25g/L cellobiose and 1g each of D-maltose, D-sucrose, D-trehalose, D-glucose, D-fructose, D-xylose, D-mannose, L-rhamnose, D-galactose, L-arabinose, D-arabinose, L-sorbose, D-mannitol, D-ribose, L-fucose, sodium D-glucuronate, and sodium D-

galacturonate per liter (Leadbetter & Breznak 1996; Leadbetter *et al.* 1998; Graber & Breznak 2004; Graber *et al.* 2004).

Several dilution-to-extinction enrichments from whole gut contents of “lower” (*Zootermopsis nevadensis* workers) and “higher” termites under 80% H₂/20% CO₂ (vol/vol) were performed. Enrichment cultures from whole gut contents of “higher” termites could only be successfully transferred two or three times, however, and “higher” termite specimens ran out or expired (typically after three weeks in lab) before successful enrichments, and subsequently isolates, could be obtained. Even the addition of 200uL of the supernatant of spun down *Dysgonomonas* str. JT5-1 cultures (a recent isolate from the “higher” termite hindgut) to enrichment cultures did not lead to successful enrichments nor isolations.

Successful dilution-to-extinction liquid enrichments for methanogens and spirochetes from the gut contents of *Z. nevadensis* were followed by three successive single-colony picks from agar dilution series for isolation (Leadbetter & Breznak 1996, Leadbetter *et al.* 1999; Graber & Breznak 2004; Graber *et al.* 2004). Agar dilution series for isolation were performed in 10mL of the 4YACo medium described above (also in 25mL butyl rubber-stoppered Balch tubes) solidified by incorporating 3% Ultrapure agarose. Sterile, de-oxygenated needles were used to transfer subsurface, well-isolated colonies from one successive isolation to another.

All enrichment and isolation cultures were incubated in the dark, at room temperature, in a horizontal position, and without agitation.

Methanogens

To enrich for methanogens specifically from *Zootermopsis nevadensis* gut contents, the 4YACo medium used for enrichments described above was amended with the antibacterial drugs rifamycin SV and cephalothin (Leadbetter & Breznak 1996). Many methanogens are naturally resistant to these antibiotics (Leadbetter & Breznak 1996).

In liquid cultures methanogens were observed as a result of their unique F420 fluorescence. Negative headspace pressure generated in liquid cultures under an 80% H₂/20% CO₂ headspace, as well as increased growth close to the 80% H₂/20% CO₂ headspace in agar dilution series, also suggested growth of methanogens.

Acetogenic spirochetes

To enrich for acetogenic spirochetes specifically from *Zootermopsis nevadensis* gut contents, the 4YACo medium used for enrichments described above was amended with the antibacterial drugs rifamycin, phosphomycin, and bromoethanesulfonate, as was used to isolate *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 as well as *T. azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9 (Leadbetter *et al.* 1999; Graber *et al.* 2004). Many spirochetes are naturally resistant to these antibiotics, and the latter is known to inhibit growth of H₂-consuming methanogens (Leadbetter *et al.* 1999).

In liquid cultures spirochetes were observed as a result of their distinct morphology. Negative headspace pressure generated in liquid cultures under an 80% H₂/20% CO₂ headspace, as well as increased growth close to the 80% H₂/20% CO₂ headspace in agar dilution series, also suggested growth of acetogens.

A spirochete *T. primitia* str. “ZNS-1” was isolated from a dilution-to-extinction enrichment tube that received the equivalent of 0.1 gut contents. After isolation *T. primitia* str. “ZNS-1” was cultivated under the same conditions as described for routine maintenance of *T. primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 (*see above*) (Leadbetter *et al.* 1999; Graber & Breznak 2004; Graber *et al.* 2004).

Identifying “ZnD2Sec”

To identify the termite hindgut microbial community member encoding the “ZnD2Sec” phylotype, the phylotype that is responsible for the majority of the formate dehydrogenase expression in the termite hindgut, enrichments for this organism were prepared in the same manner as enrichments for acetogenic spirochetes as described above, on the assumption that because this organism is responsible for the majority of formate dehydrogenase expression that it is an acetogen (Rosenthal *et al. in review*). It was hoped that this organism could be isolated and that its genome could be obtained for further research. Although an isolate was not obtained, these enrichment cultures were successfully used as templates for microfluidic multiplex digital PCR experiments. Before using these enrichments as templates for microfluidic multiplex digital PCR, however, qRT-PCR was employed to examine relative abundance of organisms with the “ZnD2Sec” phylotype relative to the other organisms in the enrichment culture.

qRT-PCR

qRT-PCR reactions (25 μ L total) contained iTaq SYBR Green Supermix with ROX (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Irvine, CA) (12.5 μ L/rxn), ZNO 1636F (1 μ L/rxn), ZNO 1729R (1 μ L/rxn), PCR water (9.5 μ L/rxn), and enrichment culture template (1 μ L/rxn). The SYBR Green protocol was used on the Bio-Rad DNAEngine thermocycler (Chromo4 real time detector) and was hot start 95°C for 3min followed by 44 cycles of 95°C for 15sec and 60°C for 30sec.

Microfluidic multiplex digital PCR

Microfluidic chip experiments were performed as described previously, and with degenerate PCR primer and probe sets targeting FDH (*fdhF*) and bacterial SSU rRNA (Appendix Table 1A-1) (Ottesen *et al.* 2006; Tadmor *et al.* 2011; Rosenthal *et al. in review*). Samples were manually retrieved from chip chambers for sequencing, also as described previously (Ottesen *et al.* 2006; Tadmor *et al.* 2011; Rosenthal *et al. in review*).

16S rRNA and *fdhF* PCR

For 16S rRNA identification in enrichment and isolate cultures, once cultures reached OD_{600nm} = 0.5, 200 μ L of culture fluid was removed, centrifuged at 13,000rpm for 1min, and resuspended in 50 μ L 1x TAE. Alternatively, cultures were harvested at OD_{600nm} = 0.5 for DNA extraction using a DNeasy extraction kit (QIAGEN, Valencia, CA). This sample was then used as a template for simplex PCR reactions on a Mastercycler Model 5331 thermocycler and with agarose gel electrophoresis. PCR reactions (20 μ L total) contained FailSafe PCR Premix D

(Epicentre Bioechnologies, Madison, WI) (10 μ L/rxn), Prok 27F primer (1 μ L/rxn), Prok 1492R primer (1 μ L/rxn), Hi Fidelity Taq Polymerase (0.2 μ L/rxn), PCR water (5.8 μ L/rxn), and template (2 μ L/rxn). Benchtop thermocycling conditions were lid 105°C, hot start 95°C for 2min, (denaturation 95°C for 30sec, annealing 50°C for 30sec, and extension 72°C for 1.5min repeated 30X), and final extension 72°C for 5min.

Samples retrieved from microfluidic chip experiments were screened for both 16S rRNA and *fdhF* gene products also via simplex PCR on a Mastercycler Model 5331 thermocycler and with agarose gel electrophoresis. PCR reactions (50 μ L rxn total, brought to final volume with PCR water) contained iQ Multiple Powermix (Bio-Rad Laboratories), 200-300nM of each primer (Prok 533F and Gen 1100R for 16S rRNA, ZNO 1204F and ZNO 1792R for *fdhF*; Appendix Table 1A-1), and 2.5 μ L of template. Benchtop thermocycling conditions were lid 105°C, hot start 95°C for 2min, (denaturation 95°C for 15sec, annealing 60°C for 1min, and extension 72°C for 1min repeated 30 or 35X), and final extension 72°C for 10min (*Rosenthal et al. in review*).

Products from samples that yielded 16S rRNA amplicons (and *fdhF* amplicons as was the case for microfluidic chip-derived samples) were PCR purified (QIAquick PCR purification, QIAGEN). 16S rRNA PCR products were cloned in TOPO-TA vectors (TOPO-TA cloning kit, Invitrogen). Plasmids from randomly chosen clones were purified (QIAprep Spin Miniprep, QIAGEN). 16S rRNA PCR products and plasmids were sequenced with generic T3 and T7 primers, and *fdhF* products were sequenced with ZNO 1204F and ZNO 1729R (Appendix Table 1A-1). All sequencing

reactions were performed at Laragen, Inc. (Los Angeles, CA) and BLAST hits to sequences were obtained to identify microfluidic chip-derived samples (Geer *et al.* 2010).

***Treponema primitia* enzymatic defenses against O₂-stress**

For identification of enzymes representing defenses against O₂-stress in *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2, genomic data for the strains were obtained from RAST (Aziz *et al.* 2008), JGI IMG/M (Markowitz *et al.* 2006), and NCBI BLAST (Geer *et al.* 2010). Genomes were then searched for enzymes recorded in the literature as being active against O₂-stress (Dolla *et al.* 2006; Brioukhanov & Netrusov 2007; Rocha *et al.* 2007; Imlay 2008b; LeFourn *et al.* 2008; Sund *et al.* 2008; Riebe *et al.* 2009; Lakhal *et al.* 2011; Xiao *et al.* 2011; Figueiredo *et al.* 2012).

RESULTS:

Yeast autolysate for media and cultivation

The isolation of *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 as well as *T. azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9, was non-trivial, and one media component that aided in their acquisition in pure culture was a yeast autolysate prepared fresh from baker's yeast (Leadbetter *et al.* 1999). Interestingly, commercial yeast extracts could not be used *in lieu* of this freshly prepared yeast autolysate (Leadbetter *et al.* 1999). From the *Treponema* organisms' initial isolation in "YACo" medium, however, after being passaged for over a decade, its growth rates had increased from a doubling time initially of 22, 29, and 35hrs for *T. primitia* str. ZAS-1, *T. primitia* str. ZAS-2, and *T. azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9, respectively, to a doubling time between 54 to 77hrs

currently for each *Treponema* isolate (Leadbetter *et al.* 1999; Graber & Breznak 2004).

In an effort to improve the growth rates of the *Treponema* isolates in 4YACo medium, one factor that warranted re-evaluation was the vital yeast autolysate media component (Leadbetter *et al.* 1999). For example, store-bought baker's yeast contains sorbitan monostearate – a surfactant with emulsifying properties – in addition to the yeast itself. This additive can inhibit microbial growth, and consequently, 4YACo medium comprised of baker's yeast autolysate prepared from different brands, and different packaging within the same brand, were prepared and growth rates of *T. primitia* str. ZAS-2 were compared on each as a proxy for growth by the other isolates. As a first observation, yeast from different brands and different packaging types within the same brand looked and smelled different so autolysate prepared from each was tested (Table 1-1).

Table 1-1: Appearance of baker's yeast and appearance and odor of corresponding yeast autolysate and autolysate supernatant.

<u>Brand</u>	<u>Packaging</u>	<u>Dry yeast appearance</u>	<u>Autolysate appearance</u>	<u>Autolysate odor</u>	<u>Autolysate supernatant</u>
Red Star ^a	large	long cylindrical pellet; tan	light tan	strong sour	orange/brown
SAF	small	small cylindrical pellet; dark tan	tan	sweet	dark yellow
SAF	large	long cylindrical pellet; cream	cream	very sweet	orange
Fleischmann's	small	small cylindrical pellet; light tan	cream	bread (sweet)	yellow
Fleischmann's	large	small spheres; light brown	dark tan	sweet	dark yellow

^aRed Star brand active dry yeast was used for original yeast autolysate preparations (Leadbetter *et al.* 1999)

After examining growth rates of *T. primitia* str. ZAS-2 obtained on 4YACo medium prepared from Fleischmann's brand active dry yeast (from large medium, and small packages), SAF brand active dry yeast (from large and small packages), and Red Star brand active dry yeast (from large and small packages), growth rates improved the most on media with yeast autolysate prepared from jars of Fleischmann's brand active dry yeast (Table 1-2). Specifically, this was 47hrs compared to between 54 and 77hrs previously, and 29hrs upon isolation (Table 1-2) (Leadbetter *et al.* 1999; Graber & Breznak 2004). From this point on, therefore, routine growth as well as enrichment and isolation attempts occurred in 4YACo liquid medium prepared with yeast autolysate made from jars of Fleischmann's brand baker's yeast.

Table 1-2: Growth rates of *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-2 on 4YACo medium prepared from yeast autolysates of different brands and packaging types.

<u>Brand</u>	<u>Packaging</u>	<u>Doubling time^b</u> +/- std. error (hrs)
Red Star ^a	large	74 +/- 1
SAF	small	85 +/- 1
SAF	large	111 +/- 12
Fleischmann's	small	47 +/- 0
Fleischmann's	large	50 +/- 4

^aRed Star brand active dry yeast was used for original yeast autolysate preparations (Leadbetter *et al.* 1999)

^bDoubling time is an average of triplicate cultures

Enrichment

Methanogens

As an exercise in the enrichment and isolation procedure, methanogens were targeted from phylogenetically “lower” termites (workers of *Zootermopsis nevadensis*). This is because, similar to acetogens, they are also H₂ + CO₂ consumers and would demonstrate similar relationships with their 80% H₂/20% CO₂ (vol/vol) headspace atmosphere as acetogens. In general, however, from what is known about spirochete and methanogen isolates obtained from the termite system thus far, methanogens appear to grow faster than spirochetes (35 to 40hrs) in the medium used here and success or problems in the procedure are able to be detected faster (Leadbetter & Breznak 1996; Leadbetter *et al.* 1998).

Methanogens were enriched for in liquid culture and noted by their F420 fluorescence. In liquid culture, methanogens appeared both filamentous as well as cocci and rod-shaped. Negative headspace pressure was also generated by these liquid cultures under an 80% H₂/20% CO₂ headspace. A dilution-to-extinction

enrichment tube that received the equivalent of 0.1 gut contents was used to inoculate an agar dilution series for subsequent isolation. Within the first of three agar dilutions preferential growth of colonies was observed close to the meniscus of the cultures at the agar/headspace interface. Presumably this was because methanogens were in the cultures and were growing close to their substrate, the 80% H₂/20% CO₂ (vol/vol) headspace. Distinct colonies could be readily transferred from these agar cultures that displayed F420 fluorescence and were consistent in morphology with what had already been observed in enrichments as methanogens. Because methanogen enrichments and isolations were simply trials, however, efforts were directed towards acetogenic spirochete enrichments and isolations.

Acetogenic spirochetes

Acetogenic spirochetes were enriched for in liquid culture from both “lower” and “higher” termites, and noted by their unique morphologies. In liquid culture, spirochetes appeared diverse in morphology with two morphologies dominating the cultures (Fig. 1-8a and b). Negative headspace pressure was also generated by these liquid cultures under an 80% H₂/20% CO₂ headspace. A dilution-to-extinction enrichment tube that received the equivalent of 0.1 gut contents was used to inoculate an agar dilution series for subsequent isolation. Within the first of three agar dilutions, preferential growth of colonies was observed close to the meniscus of the cultures at the agar/headspace interface. Presumably this was because acetogenic spirochetes were in the cultures and were growing close to their substrate, the 80% H₂/20% CO₂ (vol/vol) headspace. Distinct colonies could be

readily transferred from these agar dilution series cultures and were consistent in morphology with what had already been thought to be spirochetes in liquid cultures. Colonies were disc-like in appearance. No acetogenic spirochetes, nor any other microorganisms for that matter, were obtained from dilution-to-extinction enrichments from Joshua Tree National Park “higher” termite samples.

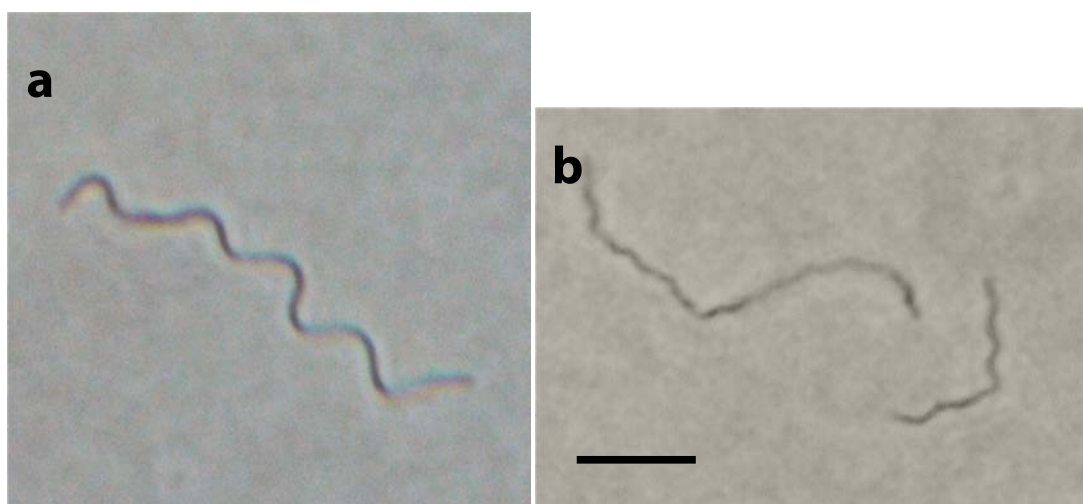


Fig. 1-8: Spirochete-like morphologies that dominated liquid enrichment cultures for acetogenic spirochetes. **(a)** “Floppy” morphology. **(b)** What would be isolated as *Treponema primitia* str. “ZNS-1.” 4YACo medium for liquid enrichment cultures was prepared with yeast autolysate made from jars of Fleischmann’s brand active dry yeast supplemented with all *Treponema* media vitamins and cofactors, a mixture of B12 vitamin formulations (100mg/300mL each of vitamin B12 (ICN Biomedicals Inc.), hydroxocobalamin acetate (Sigma), and hydroxocobalamin-HCl (Sigma)), 1.875g/50mL xylan, and a sugar cocktail of 3.25g/L cellobiose and 1g each of D-maltose, D-sucrose, D-trehalose, D-glucose, D-fructose, D-xylose, D-mannose, L-rhamnose, D-galactose, L-arabinose, D-arabinose, L-sorbose, D-mannitol, D-ribose, L-fucose, sodium D-glucuronate, and sodium D-galacturonate per liter (Graber & Breznak 2004; Graber *et al.* 2004). To enrich for acetogenic spirochetes the media was amended with the antibacterial drugs rifamycin, phosphomycin, and bromoethanesulfonate. Dilution-to-extinction enrichments from whole gut contents of a *Zootermopsis nevadensis* worker under 80% H₂/20% CO₂ (vol/vol) was performed. Then, three successive single-colony picks from agar dilution series for isolation were undertaken (Leadbetter & Breznak 1996, Leadbetter *et al.* 1999; Graber & Breznak 2004; Graber *et al.* 2004). Agar dilution series for isolation were performed in 10mL of 4YACo medium (also in 25mL butyl rubber-stoppered Balch

tubes) solidified by incorporating 3% Ultrapure agarose. Sterile, de-oxygenated needles were used to transfer subsurface, well-isolated colonies from one successive isolation to another. All enrichment and isolation cultures were incubated in the dark, at room temperature, in a horizontal position, and without agitation. Scale bar represents 5µm.

The spirochete successfully isolated shares 100% 16S rRNA sequence identity with *T. primitia* str. ZAS-2 and 99% 16S rRNA sequence identity with *T. primitia* str. ZAS-1, and phylogenetically its closest cultured relatives are these *T. primitia* strains (Appendix Item 1A-1). Given, however, that this isolate was obtained from the a *Zootermopsis nevadensis* worker termite, as opposed to str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 that were obtained from *Z. angusticollis*, this isolate was named *T. primitia* str. “ZNS-1.” Most cells are approximately 0.2µm in diameter by 3 to 15µm long, with a wavelength or body pitch of approximately 2µm similar to str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 (Fig. 1-7b). From their successful growth in 4YACo medium with a 80% H₂/20% CO₂ (vol/vol) headspace, colony-establishment preference close to the agar/headspace interface in agar tubes, and consumption of headspace as indicated by negative pressure, str. “ZNS-1” is very probably an acetogen (at least deriving acetate from H₂ + CO₂) like str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2. *T. primitia* str. “ZNS-1” also grows well at 25°C and a pH of 7.2 (Leadbetter *et al.* 1999; Graber & Breznak 2004; Graber *et al.* 2004).

Identifying “ZnD2Sec”

To identify the termite hindgut microbial community member encoding the “ZnD2Sec” phylotype, the phylotype that is responsible for the majority (40%) of the formate dehydrogenase expression in the termite hindgut, enrichments for the organism that encode this phylotype were prepared the same as enrichments for acetogenic spirochetes, on the assumption that that because this organism is

responsible for the majority of formate dehydrogenase expression that it is an acetogen (Rosenthal *et al. in review*). While attempts to isolate the termite hindgut microbial community member encoding the “ZnD2Sec” phylotype were unsuccessful, in enrichments, uniform small cocci were observed, 16S rRNA analysis confirmed the presence of “ZnD2Sec” in the sample, and qRT-PCR confirmed its relative abundance. These enrichments were used as templates for microfluidic digital PCR to have a better chance at targeting both FDH (*fdhF*) and bacterial SSU rRNA given their relative abundance in the enrichment vs. gut contents. Over 50% of the samples that co-localized 16S rRNA and *fdhF* were deltaproteobacteria. Non-matches to deltaproteobacteria were often uncultured organisms.

***Treponema primitia* enzymatic defenses against O₂-stress**

Preliminary work suggests that cultures of the termite hindgut spirochetes *Treponema primitia* maintained growth after the addition of as much as 0.5% (vol/vol) O₂ to their headspace atmosphere, and exhibited both NAD(P)H peroxidase and NAD(P)H oxidase activities (Table 1-3) (Graber & Breznak 2004). Although neither catalase nor superoxide dismutase, which together constitute a system to combat reactive oxygen species common among aerobes, were detected in *T. primitia* (Table 1-3), other enzymes that scavenge superoxide, hydrogen peroxide, and oxygen abound in the commonly-studied anaerobe, *Clostridium acetobutylicum*, and may provide insight into relevant enzymes in the termite system (Graber & Breznak 2004; Brioukhanov & Netrusov 2007; Imlay 2008a).

Table 1-3: *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-2 enzymatic defenses against oxidative stress.

<u>Enzyme</u>	<u>Activity^a</u>		<u>Genomic Evidence</u>	
	str. ZAS-1	str. ZAS-2	str. ZAS-1	str. ZAS-2
NADH oxidase	+	++	-	Y
NADPH oxidase	+	+	-	-
NADH peroxidase	+	+	-	-
NADPH peroxidase	+	+	-	-
Catalase	ND	ND	-	-
Superoxide dismutase	ND	ND	-	-

^aFrom Graber & Breznak 2004

+, low activity; ++, high activity; ND, not detected; -, no evidence; Y, evidence

For example, O₂ can steal two electrons from a variety of reduced flavoenzymes, ultimately generating H₂O₂ (Brioukhanov & Netrusov 2007; Imlay 2008a). In turn, H₂O₂ can react with unincorporated intracellular iron to produce the powerful oxidant, HO•, according to the Fenton reaction:



In *C. acetobutylicum*, when H₂O₂ directly oxidizes a mononuclear iron atom within a peroxide stress regulator (PerR), a repressor of peroxide stress responses, the oxidized PerR protein loses the capacity to bind DNA. Whereas PerR would normally bind to DNA to repress the synthesis of proteins that suppress Fenton chemistry, these proteins are formed and then hinder the conversion of H₂O₂ to HO• (Fig. 1-9). Further, rubrerythrins have been associated with both peroxidase and oxygen-scavenging activities with rubredoxins serving as electron donors in *C.*

acetobutylicum (Fig. 1-9). In addition, in low-oxygen environments low-potential electron carriers such as flavodoxins, rubredoxins, and ferredoxins will oftentimes reduce resting enzymes (Brioukhanov & Netrusov 2007; Imlay 2008a).

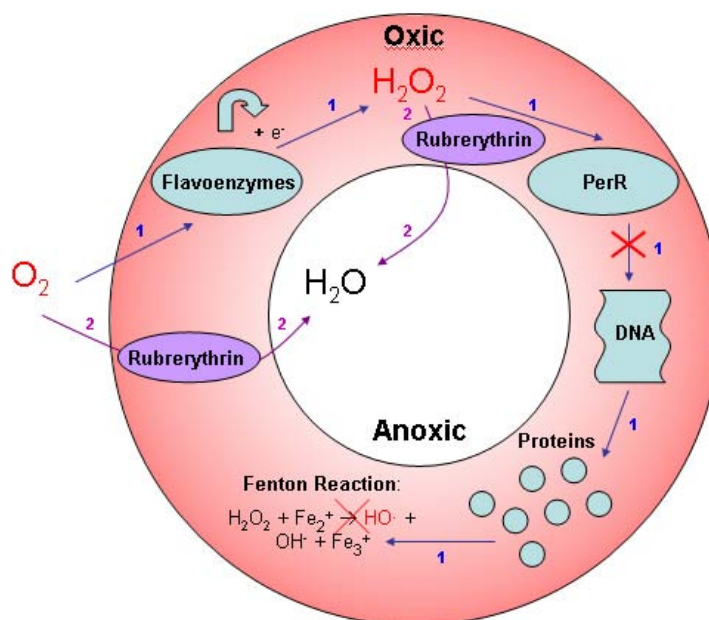


Fig. 1-9: Proposed mechanisms for combating oxidative stress in the termite hindgut. (1) Molecular oxygen can steal two electrons from a variety of reduced flavoenzymes, ultimately generating H_2O_2 . When H_2O_2 directly oxidizes a mononuclear iron atom within the peroxide stress regulator (PerR), the oxidized PerR protein loses the capacity to bind DNA. Whereas PerR would normally bind to DNA to represses the synthesis of proteins that suppress Fenton chemistry, these proteins are formed and hinder the conversion of H_2O_2 to $HO\cdot$. (2) In addition, rubrerythrins have been associated with both peroxidase and oxygen-scavenging activities, converting H_2O_2 and O_2 to H_2O , respectively (Dolla *et al.* 2006; Brioukhanov & Netrusov 2007; Rocha *et al.* 2007; Imlay 2008b; LeFourn *et al.* 2008; Sund *et al.* 2008; Riebe *et al.* 2009; Lakhal *et al.* 2011; Xiao *et al.* 2011; Figueiredo *et al.* 2012).

As with *C. acetobutylicum*, rubrerythrin and rubredoxin in both *T. primitia* strains are oftentimes found within the same gene neighborhoods (Fig. 1-10a). So, too, are the genes regulating several flavodoxins and ferredoxins in these organisms and

also found in close association with the aforementioned enzymes (Fig. 1-10b).

Preliminary observations, therefore, suggest that in addition to NAD(P)H peroxidase and NAD(P)H oxidase, other enzymes important in combating oxidative stress in the termite hindgut may include PerRs, rubrerythrins, rubredoxins, flavodoxins, and ferredoxins (Brioukhanov & Netrusov 2007; Imlay 2008b).

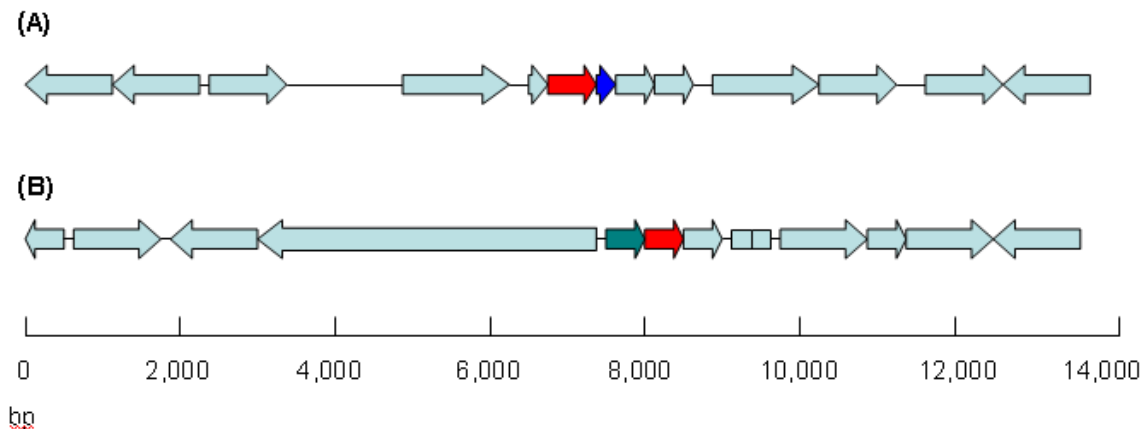


Fig. 1-10: Gene neighborhoods of enzymes involved in O_2 transformation. Predicted ORFs include **(a)** rubrerythrin (red) and rubredoxin (dark blue) as well as **(b)** peroxide stress regulator (green) and rubrerythrin (red) in *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-2.

DISCUSSION:

Yeast autolysate for media and cultivation

While growth rates of the *Treponema* isolates on medium with Red Star yeast autolysate were 54 to 77hrs, growth rates of *T. primitia* str. ZAS-2 on medium with Fleischmann's yeast autolysate markedly improved to 47hrs (Table 1-2). Growth rates of *T. primitia* str. ZAS-2 on yeast autolysate prepared from different brands and packaging of baker's yeast were also quite disparate (Table 1-2). Although yeast autolysate prepared from fresh baker's yeast is an integral component of the 4YACo medium on which *T. primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 as well as *T.*

azotonutricium str. ZAS-9 grow, that there is such a range of growth rates on yeast autolysate prepared from different brands and packages of yeast is noteworthy (Table 1-2) (Leadbetter *et al.* 1999). These results suggest that one must pay careful attention when cultivating organisms in pure culture to each of the media components as they can have considerable effects on culture growth. This includes paying attention to their source, how they may or may not change, their age, and their storage, among other factors.

Moreover, while an improvement in growth rates was seen with new yeast autolysate prepared from jars of Fleischmann's brand active dry yeast, the termite hindgut turns over every 24 hours (Bignell 1984). Consequently, if *in situ* the *Treponema* isolates were to double every 47hrs, presumably they would be lost from the termite system. These observations, therefore, hint that *Treponema* grows with a doubling time under 24hrs *in situ* and that current culture conditions are suboptimal. This disparity could be a result of the isolates evolving as they have been passaged over time to double slower and/or due to a limiting factor in the media (*see Chapter 4*).

Enrichments and isolation

Methanogens

Methanogens appeared to have been enriched for successfully as a primer in enrichment and isolation techniques. This was because colonies in agar dilution series cultures were growing close to methanogen substrates, the 80% H₂/20% CO₂ (vol/vol) headspace, and upon picking colonies and resuspending them in liquid for

microscopic observation, they displayed F420 fluorescence and morphologies consistent with those in liquid enrichments. Additionally, because the agar media was homogenous, that these colonies developed closer to the headspace was likely due to their preference for H₂ and CO₂ and not a result of any gradient of an inhibitory factor in the agar media. With additional time and attention it would be worthwhile to pursue methanogen enrichments. This is because termite methanogens are cited as a small but significant source of the atmospherically relevant trace gas and there have been relatively few studies on these termite symbionts (Brauman *et al.* 1992). Moreover, previous molecular analyses, as well as studies involving the isolation and cultivation of these organisms, have shown that the methanogens inhabiting the termite gut are distinct from other known methanogen species (Ohkuma *et al.* 1999).

Acetogenic spirochetes

A spirochete, *Treponema primitia* str. "ZNS-1," was isolated from the *Zootermopsis nevadensis* termite hindgut (Fig. 1-8b). This strain exhibits preliminary evidence of H₂ + CO₂ acetogenesis, as colonies of the strain preferentially grow at the agar/80% H₂/20% CO₂ headspace and negative pressure generated from cultures growing under 80% H₂/20% CO₂ is observed (Leadbetter *et al.* 1999; Graber & Breznak 2004, Graber *et al.* 2004). Similar to the methanogen agar cultures, because the agar media was homogenous, that *T. primitia* str. "ZNS-1" colonies developed closer to the headspace was likely due to their preference for H₂ and CO₂ and not a result of any gradient of an inhibitory factor in the agar media.

Identifying “ZnD2Sec”

Efforts to isolate the termite hindgut microbial community member encoding the “ZnD2Sec” phylotype, were unsuccessful. Nevertheless, enrichment cultures were successfully used as templates for microfluidic digital PCR and helped correlate the “ZnD2Sec” phylotype with a deltaproteobacteria and not a spirochete as previously thought (Rosenthal *et al. in review*). Originally, it was thought that “ZnD2Sec” was a spirochete because spirochetes are one of the most abundant, consistently present prokaryotes in termite hindguts (Breznak & Brune 1994; Graber & Breznak 2004; Rosenthal *et al. in review*). Moreover, it was assumed that because this organism is responsible for the majority of formate dehydrogenase expression that it is an acetogen, and since two of the three spirochetes already isolated from the termite hindgut demonstrate bona fide $H_2 + CO_2$ acetogenic activities, it was also assumed this organism is an acetogenic spirochete. Nevertheless, multiplex microfluidic digital PCR experiments confirmed that the termite hindgut microbial community member encoding the “ZnD2Sec” phylotype is a deltaproteobacteria (Rosenthal *et al. in review*). This finding supports that one must remain open to the unexpected (*see Chapter 4*). It is also noteworthy that the phylotype that is responsible for the second-most formate dehydrogenase expression in the termite hindgut (14% in contrast to 40% for “ZnD2Sec”) is encoded by a free-living spirochete (Rosenthal *et al. in review*).

***Treponema primitia* enzymatic defenses against O_2 -stress**

Treponema primitia str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 lack hallmark mechanisms for dealing with oxidative stress, specifically catalase and superoxide dismutase (Table 1-3) (Graber

Breznak 2004). Although they do not have catalase and superoxide dismutase, this does not necessarily mean that str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 are especially sensitive to O₂. Likely rather, they have other strategies and relationships with O₂ in their environment, which is relevant to work discussed in Chapter 3. Possible mechanisms are also listed below and should be investigated further (Appendix Table 1A-2).

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CHAPTER 1: APPENDIX

Table 1A-1: 16S rRNA and *fdhF* multiplex and simplex primer and probe designs.

Table 1A-2: Enzymatic defenses against O₂-stress.

Item 1A-1: *Treponema primitia* str. "ZNS-1" 16S rRNA sequence.

Table 1A-1: 16S rRNA and *fdhF* multiplex and simplex primer and probe designs.

Primer or Probe	Sequence	Target	Experiments
Prok 27F	5' - AGA GTT TGA TCC TGG CTC AG - 3'	Gen bac 16S rRNA	Isolate identification
Prok 1492R	5' - TAC GGY TAC CTT GTT ACG ACT T - 3'	Gen bac 16S rRNA	Isolate identification; Microfluidic digital PCR on chip
Prok 357F	5' - CTC CTA CGG GAG GCA GCA G - 3'	Gen bac 16S rRNA	Microfluidic digital PCR on chip
GenBac HEX- 1389Prb	5' - HEX - CTT GTA CAC ACC GCC CGT C- 3BHQ1 - 3'	Gen bac 16S rRNA (probe)	Microfluidic digital PCR on chip
FAM-1636Prb	5' - ACT ATG ACC GGC AAT TGT CGC CTG TT -3'	ZnD2Sec <i>fdhF</i> (probe)	Microfluidic digital PCR on chip
ZNO 1204F	5' - AAC GAA CAT GAC GGC GTC TAC TCT - 3'	ZnD2Sec <i>fdhF</i>	To look for in enrichments; Microfluidic digital PCR on chip; chip well pick check
ZNO 1792R	5' - TCA GAC CCA TAT CAC GGC AAA GTT - 3'	ZnD2Sec <i>fdhF</i>	To look for in enrichments; Microfluidic digital PCR on chip; chip well pick check
Prok 533F	5' - GTG CCA GCM GCC GCG GTA A - 3'	Gen bac 16S rRNA	chip well pick check
Gen 1100R:	5' - AGG	Gen bac 16S	chip well pick

	GTT GCG CTC GTT G - 3'	rRNA	check
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Table 1A-2: Possible enzymatic defenses against O₂-stress.

<u>Citation</u>	<u>Enzymes to investigate</u>
Rocha <i>et al.</i> 2007	glutathione/glutaredoxin; thioredoxin peroxidase
Sund <i>et al.</i> 2008	alkyl hydroperoxide reductase; cytochrome C peroxidase/oxidase; ferritin; thiol peroxidase scavengase; "oxygen-induced starch utilization" genes; "global oxidative response" genes
Le Fourn <i>et al.</i> 2008	any oxidoreductase; any oxidase; any peroxidase
Riebe <i>et al.</i> 2009	rubrerythrin, rubredoxin, NADH: rubredoxin oxidoreductase
Xiao <i>et al.</i> 2011	alkyl hydroperoxide reductase; pyridine nucleotide-disulfide reductase; DNA oxidative damage protective proteins (DNA-binding); ribonucleotide reductase; nucleotide triphosphate; pyrophosphohydrolase; polynucleotide phosphorylase, enolase
Lakhal <i>et al.</i> 2011	neelaredoxin
Figueiredo <i>et al.</i> 2012	bacterioferritin
Dolla <i>et al.</i> 2006	superoxide reductase; nigerythrin

Item 1A-1: *Treponema primitia* str. "ZNS-1" 16S rRNA sequence.

TTACCTTGTTACGACTTCACCCTCCTCACTAAACGTACCTTCGACAGCGCGCTCCTTGCGG
TTACGCTACCGGCTTCGGGTACCTCCAACTCGGATGGTGTGACGGGCGGTGTGTACAAGG
CCCGGGAACGTATTCACCGCGCCATGCTGATGCGCGATTACTAGCGATTCCAACTTCATG
AAGTCGGGTTTCAGACTTCAATCCGAACTACGGGCGGCTTTTTTGCGCTTCGCTTTGACCT
CGCGGTTTCGCGTCGCTTTGTACCGCCCATTTGTAGCACGTGTGTAGCCCTGGACATAAGG
GCCATGATGACTTGACGTCATCCCCACCTTCCTCCGGTTTGTACCGGCAGTTCCGCCAG
AGTCCTCAGCGTTACCTGTTAGTAACTGGCAGTAGGGGTTGCGCTCGTTGCGGGACTTAA
CCCAACACCTCACGGCACGAGCTGACGACAGCCATGCAGCACCTGTGATAGCGCGTATTG
CTACGCTGATACATCTCTGCATCATTCCTACTACCATGTCAAACCCAGGTAAGGTTCTCGC
GTATCATCGAATTAAACCACATGCTCCACCGCTTGTGCGGGCCCCCGTCAATTCCTTTGA
GTTTCACCCTTGCGGGCATACTCCCCAGGCGGTGCACTTATCACGTTTCGCTTCGGCACTG
AGCCGCTTGGCCCAACACCTAGTGACATCGTTTATAGTGCGGACTACCAGGGTATCTAA
TCCTGTTTGCTCCCCGCACTTTCGCGCCTCAGCGTCAGTCATTGGCTAGTAGTTCGCCTTC
GCCACCGGTGTTCTTCCGCATATCTACAGATTTACCCCTACACGCGGAATTCCAACTAC
CCCTCCATGA

CHAPTER 2**Exploring genomic evidence of acetogenic demethylation by *Treponema azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9****ABSTRACT:**

Unlike the acetogenic termite hindgut spirochete isolates *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2, the isolate *T. azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9 does not display acetogenic activity *in vitro*. Moreover, *T. azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9 lacks formate dehydrogenase and methylene-tetrahydrofolate reductase, enzymes integral to the methyl branch of the acetyl-CoA (Wood-Ljungdahl) pathway of acetogenesis found in *T. primitia*. Together, these observations suggest that the strain is incapable of contributing to the termite system's acetate pool via acetogenesis. Nevertheless, *T. azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9's genome does have two carbon monoxide dehydrogenase homologs representing the other branch of the Wood-Ljungdahl pathway, the carboxyl branch, as well as 51 genes annotated as either methylases or methyltransferases which – with available methyl- or methoxylated substrates – can generate the same end product as the methyl branch of the pathway. Potentially, therefore, *T. azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9 can contribute to acetogenesis in the termite hindgut by coupling its methyl(transfer)ase and carboxyl branch capabilities. That the termite hindgut is replete with wood-derived meth(ox)ylated compounds also supports this notion. To test this hypothesis, *T. azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9 was grown on the meth(ox)ylated compounds DL-methionine, DMSO, methanol, methylamine, dimethylamine, trimethylamine, betaine, and trimethoxybenzoate. Specifically, since acetate is the fuel for both the termite host and its microbial

symbionts alike, possible increases in growth rate and yield of *T. azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9 were monitored as a proxy for metabolism of these meth(ox)ylated compounds into acetate. Despite convincing genomic evidence, however, no significantly different growth rates and yields were observed *in vitro*. While there is currently no *in vitro* evidence in support of acetogenic demethylation by *T. azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9, this does not mean that this function is not occurring *in situ* and in conjunction with other members of the termite hindgut microbial community. Therefore, this hypothesis could be re-evaluated using a combination of diverse microbial ecology research techniques discussed here.

INTRODUCTION:

Acetate is an important metabolite in the termite-hindgut microbial community mutualism

Hungate was the first to detect acetate in termite hindguts, specifically in the hindguts of the phylogenetically “lower” termites *Zootermopsis* sp. and *Reticulitermes claripennis* (1939, 1943). Decades later, it has become well-established that acetate is the “biofuel” of the termite host itself as well as its mutualistic hindgut microbial community (Odelson & Breznak 1983; Breznak & Switzer 1986; Breznak 1994; Leadbetter *et al.* 1999; Tholen & Brune 2000; Graber & Breznak 2004; Graber *et al.* 2004). In particular, acetate serves as the primary oxidizable energy source and a precursor of amino acids, hydrocarbons, and terpenes in the termite system (Blomquist *et al.* 1979; Mauldin 1982; Odelson & Breznak 1983; Breznak & Switzer 1986; Brauman *et al.* 1992; Breznak & Brune 1994). In *Reticulitermes flavipes*, for example, acetate generated by the hindgut

microbiota supports 77 to 100% of the respiratory requirement of the insect system (Mauldin 1982; Breznak & Switzer 1986).

In the wood-feeding, phylogenetically “lower” termites, symbiotic cellulolytic hindgut protozoa are known to hydrolyze wood polysaccharides and ferment the resulting sugar monomers into acetate, carbon dioxide, and hydrogen (*please see Chapter 1 Fig 1-2*) (Hungate 1955; Yamin 1980; Odelson & Breznak 1983; Odelson & Breznak 1985a; Odelson & Breznak 1985b; Breznak & Brune 1994). Odelson and Breznak (1983) hypothesized that additional acetate is generated from the $H_2 + CO_2$ fermentation byproducts, and Breznak and Switzer (1986) validated $H_2 + CO_2$ acetogenic activity in the termite hindgut. Specifically, acetogenic bacteria are responsible for transforming this $H_2 + CO_2$ into additional acetate (*please see Chapter 1 Fig 1-2*) (Breznak & Switzer 1986; Brauman *et al.* 1992; Leadbetter *et al.* 1999; Pester & Brune 2007). This bacteria mediated synthesis of acetate from fermentation-generated $H_2 + CO_2$ is significant and could account for up to approximately 1/3 of all the acetate produced during the hindgut fermentation (Breznak & Switzer 1986).

Acetogens isolated from the termite hindgut

Several $H_2 + CO_2$ acetogenic bacteria have been isolated from the hindguts of nutritionally diverse termites. Reflective of the importance of $H_2 + CO_2$ acetogenesis to termite nutrition, these organisms are diverse and include *Sporomusa termitida* obtained from the wood-feeding “higher” termite *Nasutitermes nigriceps* (Breznak *et al.* 1988), *Acetonema longum* from the dry wood-feeding “lower” termite

Pterotermes occidentis (Kane & Breznak 1991), *Clostridium mayombeii* from the African soil-feeding “higher” termite *Cubitermes speciosus* (Kane *et al.* 1991), and *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 from *Zootermopsis angusticollis* (Leadbetter *et al.* 1999).

While it is known that these organisms perform $H_2 + CO_2$ acetogenesis *in vitro*, there is not a good understanding of their contribution to acetogenesis and, in turn, to nutrition and energy in the termite hindgut (Brune 2006). Leadbetter’s enlightening isolation of, and work with, *T. primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 illustrated that spirochetes - prominent members of termite hindgut microbial communities - could be significant contributors to the termite system’s acetate pool given their numbers and acetogenic capabilities (1999). In addition to $H_2 + CO_2$ acetogenesis, both *T. primitia* strains were able to ferment homoacetogenically various hexoses, pentoses, and disaccharides (Graber & Breznak 2004). *T. primitia* str. ZAS-2 was found to also utilize methoxylated aromatic compounds (Graber & Breznak 2004).

Homoacetogenic growth on meth(ox)ylated compounds

In observing enrichment cultures from sewage sludge, Fischer was the first to report the formation of acetate from $H_2 + CO_2$ (1932). Then Wieringa reported the first bacterium to derive energy for growth by acetate synthesis from $H_2 + CO_2$, *Clostridium aceticum* (1936). Most acetogenic bacteria derive acetate from $H_2 + CO_2$ with H_2 serving as the electron donor for CO_2 reduction to acetate (Diekert 1992). Specifically, the methyl group of acetate is formed from CO_2 via formate and the carboxyl group is derived from CO, synthesized from O_2 by carbon monoxide

dehydrogenase (Diekert 1992). Nevertheless, acetogens are a very metabolically versatile group of anaerobic bacteria (Diekert 1992; Schink 1995). Most are able to grow on a variety of different substrates including sugars, C-1 compounds, methylated compounds, non-aromatic or aromatic methoxylated compounds, and alcohols (Schink 1995).

Acetogens that grow with meth(ox)ylated compounds are known as “demethylating acetogens” and include *Butyribacterium methylotrophicum* (Lynd & Zeikus 1983), *Eubacterium limosum* (Genthner *et al.* 1981), *Acetobacterium woodii* (Bache & Pfennig 1981), *Sporomusa* sp. (Breznak 1988), *Clostridium formicoaceticum*, and *Acetobacterium carbinolicum* (Diekert 1992). Commonly used methyl substrates are methanol (Zeikus *et al.* 1980), methoxylated aromatic compounds such as vanillate or syringate (Bache & Pfennig 1981), and methyl chloride (Traunecker *et al.* 1991). These and similar compounds may be formed as intermediates of wood decomposition in the termite hindgut and offer an alternative method of generating acetate (Bache & Pfennig 1981).

Experimental motivation

Two termite hindgut spirochete isolates, *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2, are bona fide $H_2 + CO_2$ acetogens (Leadbetter *et al.* 1999). In particular, acetogenesis from $H_2 + {}^{14}C$ -labelled CO_2 was found to support most of the growth of *T. primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 in accordance with acetyl-CoA (Wood-Ljungdahl) stoichiometries (Leadbetter *et al.* 1999). Both strains also demonstrated the use of other organic substrates homoacetogenically (Graber & Breznak 2004).

A third spirochete isolate from the same termite species hindgut, *T. azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9, however, does not display acetogenic physiology in pure culture (Graber *et al.* 2004). After first being obtained in pure culture, the genomes of the three *Treponema* species have become available for analysis and comparison (Rosenthal *et al.* 2011; Ballor *et al.* 2012). Although the physiology is not present *in vitro*, *T. azotonutricium*'s genome is not completely devoid of Wood-Ljungdahl pathway homologs (Rosenthal *et al.* 2011; Ballor *et al.* 2012).

As background, the acetyl-CoA (Wood-Ljungdahl) pathway of acetogenesis consists of a carboxyl branch and a methyl branch (Fig. 2-1) (Diekert 1992; Drake 1994; Ragsdale 1997). In the carboxyl branch, carbon monoxide dehydrogenase reduces CO₂ to CO forming the carboxyl group of acetate (Fig. 2-1). In the methyl branch, CO₂ is reduced to formate, which is subsequently bound to tetrahydrofolate generating formyl-tetrahydrofolate (Fig. 2-1). This formyl-tetrahydrofolate is then reduced to methyl-H₄ folate via methenyl- and methylene-H₄ folate (Fig. 2-1). The resulting methyl group is next transferred to a corrinoid protein that becomes the methyl group of acetate (Fig. 2-1) (Ljungdahl *et al.* 1966; Diekert 1992; Drake 1994; Ragsdale 1997).

T. azotonutricium str. ZAS-9 has genes with the requisite Pfam domains suggesting functionality for the carboxyl branch of acetogenesis (represented by carbon monoxide dehydrogenase, although initial studies did not detect activity for this enzyme; Graber & Breznak 2004) and homologs also with requisite Pfams for four of the six enzymes responsible for the methyl branch of acetogenesis (Fig. 2-1)

(Rosenthal *et al.* 2011; Ballor *et al.* 2012). Specifically, *T. azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9 has all of the genes for the Wood-Ljungdahl pathway of acetogenesis that *T. primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 have, with the exception of formate dehydrogenase and methylene-tetrahydrofolate reductase (Fig. 2-1) (Rosenthal *et al.* 2011; Ballor *et al.* 2012).

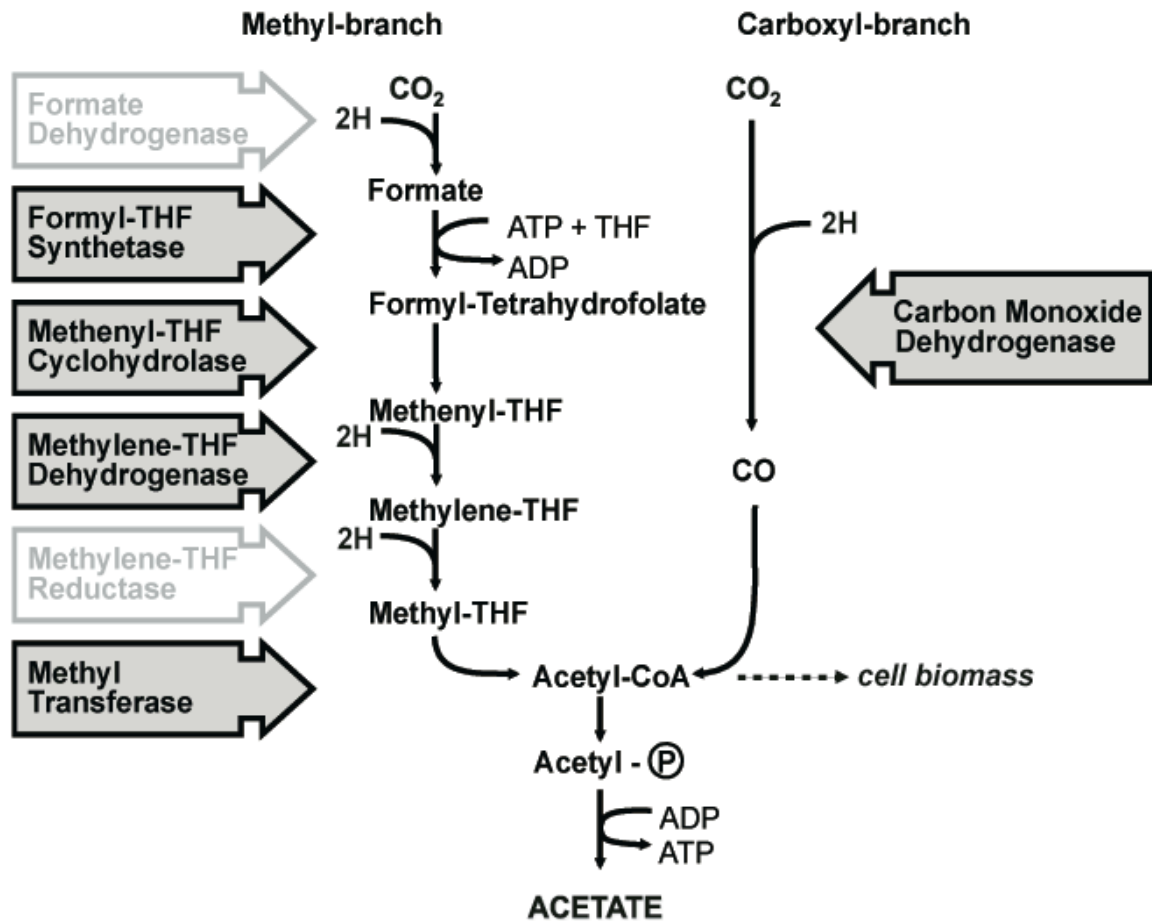


Fig. 2-1: Acetyl-CoA (Wood-Ljungdahl) pathway for CO₂-reductive acetogenesis. THF, tetrahydrofolate; Acetyl-P, acetyl-phosphate. Pathway enzymes with homologs in *Treponema azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9's genome are dark whereas pathway enzymes without homologs in *T. azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9's genome are light. Dashed line indicates intermediate can be instead utilized for biosynthetic processes. (Figure courtesy of the Leadbetter Lab).

Formate dehydrogenase is responsible for the first step of the methyl branch of the Wood-Ljungdahl pathway for the formation of the methyl group of acetate (Fig. 2-1) (Diekert 1992). It catalyzes the reduction of CO₂ to formate and is an oxygen sensitive enzyme (Fig. 2-1) (Diekert 1992). Given that the termite hindgut is actually an environment with varying levels of oxygen, it is plausible that *T. azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9 has lost this enzyme in favor of a route to generate acetate that can withstand an environment of varying oxygen levels (Brune *et al.* 1995).

T. azotonutricium str. ZAS-9 lacks another key methyl branch enzyme, methylene-tetrahydrofolate reductase (Fig. 2-1). While missing both formate dehydrogenase and methylene-tetrahydrofolate reductase means that *T. azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9 cannot generate the methyl group of acetate via this methyl branch, *T.*

azotonutricium str. ZAS-9's genome contains 51 annotated methyl(transfer)ases (Appendix Table 2A-1). It is possible, therefore, that *T. azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9 can directly shunt methyl groups from meth(ox)ylated compounds in the termite hindgut environment into the Wood-Ljungdahl pathway to contribute to the methyl group of acetate, bypassing the majority of the methyl branch (Fig. 2-1) (Ljungdahl *et al.* 1966; Diekert 1992; Drake 1994; Ragsdale 1997). Although *T. azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9 does derive acetate as well as ethanol, H₂, and CO₂ from non-homoacetogenic fermentation of carbohydrates, this ability would allow the strain to contribute even more to termite nutrition via acetogenesis from demethylation of organic compounds. To test this hypothesis liquid cultures of *T. azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9 were grown with a variety of meth(ox)ylated compounds. Growth rates and yields were measured as a proxy for acetate production.

MATERIALS AND METHODS:

Media and cultivation

Routine *in vitro* growth and maintenance of *Treponema azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9 in 4YACo liquid medium under a headspace of 80% N₂/20% CO₂ was carried out as previously described (*please see Chapter 1 Materials and Methods*) (Graber *et al.* 2004). For examination of growth of *T. azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9 on several meth(ox)ylated compounds, the growth medium was maintained at 4YACo or reformulated to 1YACo (yeast autolysate for YACo media prepared from jars of Fleischmann's brand yeast, *please see Chapter 1*), and maltose was either increased to 40mM, retained at 20mM, decreased to 5mM, 2.5mM, or 1mM final concentration, or omitted. In some instances 100% H₂ was added sterily to the culture headspace of 80% N₂/20% CO₂ (to achieve a final concentration of 0.5% H₂, vol/vol) prior to or at the time of inoculation. Cultures were incubated in the dark, at room temperature, in a horizontal position, and without agitation.

Growth in the presence of meth(ox)ylated compounds

Individual 50mM stock solutions of DL-methionine, DMSO, methanol, methylamine, dimethylamine, trimethylamine, betaine, and trimethoxybenzoate were prepared sterily, under N₂, and stored in the dark (Table 2-1). As needed, stock solutions were neutralized with NaOH during the preparations.

To investigate the potential toxicity of these meth(ox)ylated compounds on *Treponema azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9, initial studies compared growth of the strain on each substrate at 1mM, 5mM, or 10mM final concentration. Controls were liquid

cultures of the same experimental conditions except with water instead of meth(ox)ylated substrate. As a result of preliminary studies, cultures of *T. azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9 were screened for metabolism of meth(ox)ylated compounds at a final concentration of 5mM. Changes in optical density of growing cultures was a proxy for meth(ox)ylated compound utilization and were measured at 600_{nm} with a Spectronic 20 colorimeter.

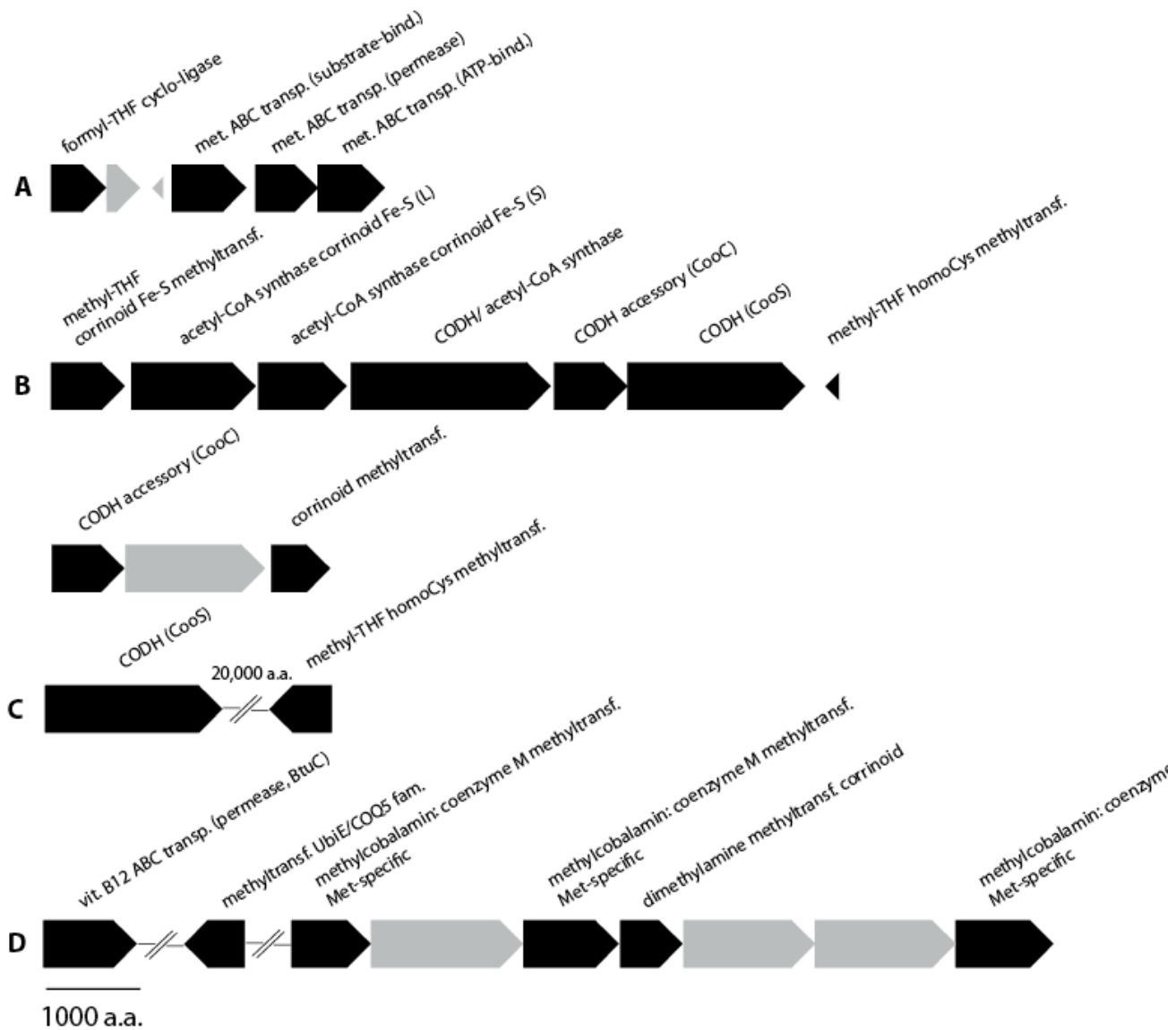
Bioinformatics

For identification of methylases and methyltransferases in *Treponema azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9's genome, data were obtained from RAST (Aziz *et al.* 2008), JGI IMG/M (Markowitz *et al.* 2006), and NCBI BLAST (Geer *et al.* 2010).

RESULTS:

***Treponema azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9 has putative methyl(transfer)ases in neighborhoods of acetyl-CoA (Wood-Ljungdahl) pathway homologs**

Several methyl(transfer)ases are in the gene neighborhoods of Wood-Ljungdahl pathway homologs in the genome of *T. azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9, and this arrangement might have implications to functionality (Fig. 2-2). This localization supports the hypothesis that *T. azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9 can bypass the methyl branch of the Wood-Ljungdahl pathway of acetogenesis and, instead, directly transfer methyl groups from wood-derived meth(ox)ylated compounds in the termite hindgut directly to carboxylic acid generated from the carboxyl branch of



the pathway to form acetate.

Fig. 2-2: *Treponema azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9 gene neighborhoods with both putative methyl(transfer)ases and homologs of the acetyl-CoA (Wood-Ljungdahl) pathway of acetogenesis. Relevant genes are in black, and unrelated or hypothetical proteins are in grey. THF, tetrahydrofolate; Met, methionine; transp., transporter; bind., binding; (L), large subunit; (S), small subunit; CODH, carbon monoxide dehydrogenase; Cys, Cysteine; methyltransf., methyltransferase; vit., vitamin; fam., family.

***Treponema azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9 growth on meth(ox)ylated compounds is inconclusive**

As a preliminary screen of potential toxicity of meth(ox)ylated compounds on *Treponema azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9, growth of the strain was evaluated on each substrate at 1mM, 5mM, or 10mM final concentration in 1YACo medium with 20mM maltose (data not shown). Growth was successful and growth yields were greatest on compounds provided at 5mM concentration compared to 1 and 10mM (data not shown). From this point on, substrates were added to cultures to 5mM final concentration for growth experiments.

Next, as a first pass at comparison of growth of *T. azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9 on 5mM of each meth(ox)ylated substrate, liquid cultures of the strain were prepared in duplicate in 1YACo medium with 20mM maltose (Fig. 2-3a; Appendix Fig. 2A-1). A small but significant increase in growth yield was observed in *T. azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9 cultures grown with DMSO, betaine, and trimethoxybenzoate relative to growth on other substrates or just water as a control (Fig. 2-3a; Appendix Fig. 2A-1, Table 2A-2). No discernable differences in growth rate were observed (Fig. 2-3a; Appendix Fig. 2A-1).

As a result of this initial comparison, betaine, DMSO, and trimethoxybenzoate appeared to be promising compounds for further testing, but significant increases in growth yield on these substrates relative to controls were small (Fig. 2-3a; Appendix Fig. 2A-1, Table 2A-2). Therefore, growth on all of the aforementioned meth(ox)ylated compounds was re-evaluated at 5mM concentration and with or without 5mM maltose. The amount of maltose added to experimental cultures was

reduced on the assumption that 20mM maltose, as examined earlier, provided too much substrate for growth. Perhaps, *T. azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9 was preferentially utilizing maltose instead of the meth(ox)ylated compounds. Therefore, by reducing maltose to 5mM or omitting it, it was supposed that str. ZAS-9 would metabolize the meth(ox)ylated compounds and more striking growth yield differences would be seen. This time, “sparkling” amounts of 100% H₂ were also added to the 80% N₂/20% CO₂ headspace in case H₂ had been a limiting factor in the previous experiment. A small but significant increase in growth yield was observed in *T. azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9 cultures grown with methylamine, dimethylamine, and trimethoxybenzoate relative to growth on other substrates or just water as a control (Fig. 2-3b, c, and d; Appendix Fig. 2A-2a, b, c, and d, Table 2A-3, Table 2A-4). No discernable differences in growth rate were seen (Fig. 2-3b, c, and d; Appendix Fig. 2A-2a, b, c, and d).

Because the most significantly different increase in growth yield relative to controls was observed with growth on dimethylamine, dimethylamine was examined with various YACo, maltose, and H₂ regimes in an effort to find the combination of YACo, maltose, and H₂ that would “kickstart” growth and prompt optimal utilization of the meth(ox)ylated compound. The increases in growth yield or rate with dimethylamine, however, were not significant despite evaluating all of these parameters (Fig. 2-3e; Appendix Fig. 2A-3a and b). The results obtained did not warrant further investigation using these approaches.

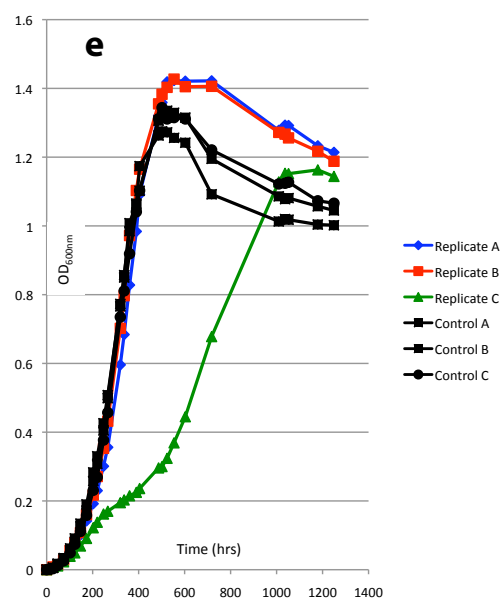
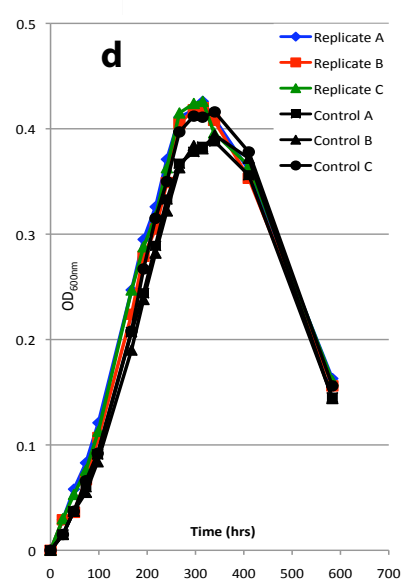
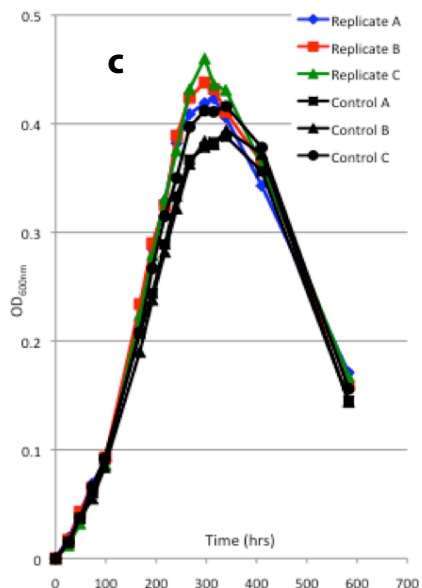
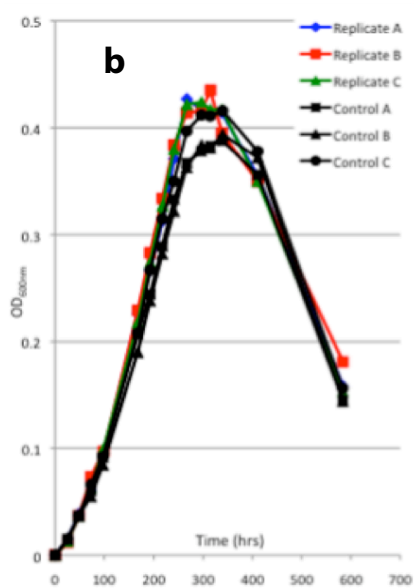
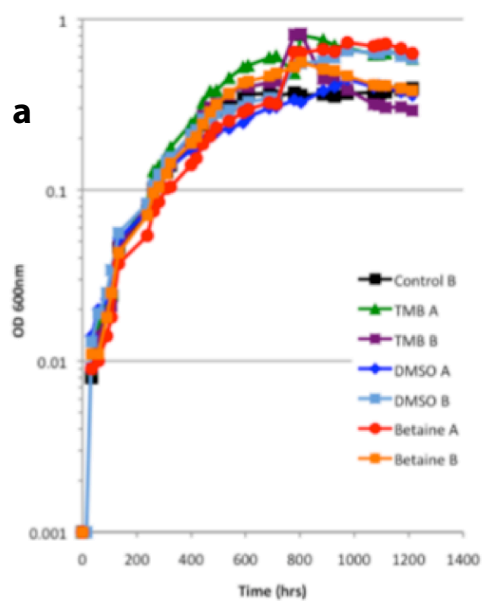
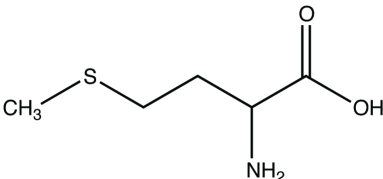
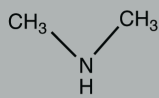
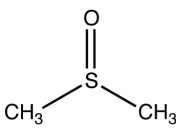
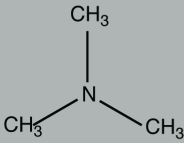
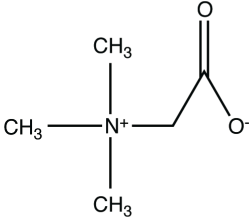
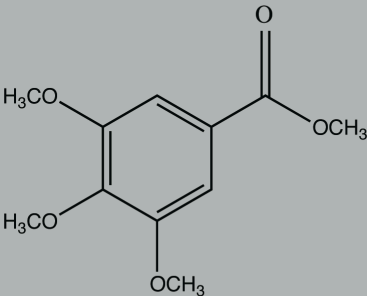


Fig. 2-3: Growth of *Treponema azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9 with various meth(ox)ylated compounds. Small but significant increases in growth yield were observed from 1YACo liquid cultures of *T. azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9 under a headspace of 80% N₂/20% CO₂ growing with **(a)** 5mM DMSO, betaine, and trimethoxybenzoate (TMB) and supplemented with 20mM maltose (initial experiment) and **(b)** 5mM methylamine, **(c)** 5mM dimethylamine, and **(d)** 5mM trimethoxybenzoate all supplemented with 5mM maltose and 100% H₂ to achieve a final concentration of 0.5% vol/vol (all second experiment results) compared to controls with water instead of the meth(ox)ylated compounds. Inconclusive increases in growth yield were observed from **(e)** liquid cultures of *T. azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9 growing in 4YACo medium with 5mM dimethylamine, 40mM maltose, and 100% H₂ to achieve a final concentration of 0.5% vol/vol compared to controls with water instead of the meth(ox)ylated compound. All cultures were incubated in the dark, at room temperature, in a horizontal position, and without agitation. Changes in optical density of growing cultures was a proxy for meth(ox)ylated compound utilization and were measured at 600_{nm} with a Spectronic 20 colorimeter. No discernable differences in growth rate were seen.

Table 2-1: Methylated compounds tested for growth on by *Treponema azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9

Monoaromatic Compound	Evidence of significantly different growth yield on by <i>T. azotonutricium</i> str. ZAS-9
$\text{H}_3\text{C}-\text{OH}$ methanol	neutral
$\text{H}_3\text{C}-\text{NH}_2$ methylamine	+
 DL-methionine	-
 dimethylamine	+
 dimethylsulfoxide	+
 trimethylamine	neutral
 betaine	+
 3, 4, 5-trimethoxybenzoate	+

DISCUSSION:***Treponema azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9 growth on meth(ox)ylated compounds is inconclusive**

No significant differences in growth rates of liquid cultures of *Treponema azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9 with meth(ox)ylated compounds relative to controls were seen (Fig. 2-3a, b, c, d, and e; Appendix Fig. 2A-1, Fig 2A-2a, b, c, and d, Fig. 2A-3a and b). Any significant growth yield increases in experimental cultures compared to controls were small and not reproducible among the different meth(ox)ylated substrates tested (Fig. 2-3a, b, c, d, and e; Appendix Fig. 2A-1, Table 2A-2, Fig 2A-2a, b, c, and d, Table 2A-3, Table 2A-4, Fig. 2A-3a and b). Specifically, in 1YACo liquid medium under an 80% N₂/20% CO₂ headspace and supplemented with 20mM maltose, cultures of *T. azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9 displayed significant but relatively small increases in growth yield with 5mM DMSO, betaine, or trimethoxybenzoate (TMB) (Fig. 2-3a, b, c, d, and e; Appendix Fig. 2A-1, Table 2A-2). On the other hand, in 1YACo liquid medium under an 80% N₂/20% CO₂ headspace with 100% H₂ added to achieve 0.5% vol/vol final concentration, and supplemented with 5mM maltose or no maltose, cultures of *T. azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9 displayed significant but relatively small increases in growth yield with 5mM methylamine, dimethylamine, or TMB (Fig. 2-3b, c, and d; Appendix Fig. 2A-2a, b, c, and d, Table 2A-3, Table 2A-4). Although from these experiments dimethylamine appeared to be the most promising substrate, experiments focusing on dimethylamine with various regimes of YACo, maltose, and H₂ in an effort to observe greater differences in growth yield between experimental and control cultures were inconclusive (Fig. 2-3e; Appendix Fig. 2A-3a and b).

Future work:***Analyze Treponema azotonutricium str. ZAS-9 methyl(transfer)ases genes and gene neighborhoods***

First, while methyl(transfer)ases were observed in the same gene neighborhoods as homologs of the acetyl-CoA (Wood-Ljungdahl) pathway of acetogenesis, it would be worthwhile to examine those neighborhoods for evidence of promoters, operons, and regulations to gauge function. Further, a simple exercise to also evaluate function would be to look for Pfam domains and key residues known to be important for functionality in these gene and protein sequences. The presence of key Pfam domains and amino acid residues could support the hypothesis of acetogenic demethylation by *T. azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9. The absence of key Pfam domains and amino acid residues would not necessarily rule out this hypothesis, but could re-direct studies keeping these differences in mind.

Decrease experimental concentration of meth(ox)ylated substrate

That dimethylamine was the substrate that led to the most promising possible increases in *T. azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9 growth yield corroborates earlier studies demonstrating that *T. primitia* str. ZAS-2 is able to use methoxylated aromatic compounds, such as TMB, as energy sources (Graber & Breznak 2004). Similar to the work with *T. azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9 presented herein, *T. primitia* str. ZAS-2 did not grow on methanol (Graber & Breznak 2004). In the work with *T. primitia* str. ZAS-2, however, meth(ox)ylated compounds were supplied at concentrations less than or equal to 2.5mM because higher concentrations inhibited growth (Graber & Breznak 2004). Perhaps testing growth with 5mM of meth(ox)ylated

aromatic compounds here was inhibitory. The maximum concentration of meth(ox)ylated substrates that did not lead to inhibitory effects was chosen for experimental evaluation under the assumption that it would lead to most product formation and observable differences between experimental and control cultures. However, perhaps growth was not visibly inhibited by 5mM concentrations but compound utilization was because enzyme substrate binding sites were overloaded. In the future one could test a range of concentrations between the 1mM and 5mM concentrations examined here and simultaneously measure how much of the meth(ox)ylated is used. The experiment could then be repeated using that particular concentration in order to not overwhelm the system. Another potential experiment would be to re-evaluate this hypothesis after “priming” *T. azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9 that has been sub-cultured away from its original environment for over a decade with meth(ox)ylated compounds to “kickstart” this putative metabolism.

Directly measure meth(ox)ylated compound usage and acetate production

That significant but small boosts in growth yield were observed suggests that, under the experimental conditions examined herein, any possible acetate generation by *T. azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9 via the proposed acetogenic demethylation mechanism does not result in an increase in growth rate and yield such as can be detected by optical density measurements. While it is still undetermined whether or not *T. azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9 can generate acetogenesis via acetogenic demethylation, perhaps different experimental approaches such as radio-labeling and tracing of the methyl groups of the examined meth(ox)ylated compounds, or GC-MS, ICS, or LC-MS

measurements of culture media for acetate production over time of culture growth, will provide more conclusive answers.

Feeding experiments and co-culturing

Earlier and subsequent bioinformatic and genomic work with the *T. primitia* meta-pathway homologs also indicates that growth yield increases are not necessarily the best proxy for an acetate-yielding function (*please see Chapter 3*). This may be because *in situ*, perhaps, this acetate is not used by the generating organism, but is instead given to another member of the hindgut microbial community. For example, it has been suggested that related to their symbiotic relationships with the termite gut microbial community and the termite host itself, *T. primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 and *T. azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9 do not convert substrates to products for rapid growth and efficient generation of cell material (Graber & Breznak 1994; Graber *et al.* 1994). Rather, they give the acetate they produce to the rest of the hindgut microbial community and their host, and display limited production of biomass (Graber & Breznak 1994; Graber *et al.* 1994). This transfer of acetate may be able to be measured by conducting feeding experiments whereby cell-free *T. azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9 culture fluid is fed to other cultures that would demonstrate a marked increase in growth rate and yield from acetate. Success of co-culture experiments with *T. azotonutricium* and this organism could also be informative (*Please see Chapters 2 and 3*) (Rosenthal *et al.* 2011).

What is known ecologically about the termite hindgut ecosystem suggests that the ability to perform acetogenic demethylation would not only contribute to the

acetate pool in the termite system, but may also be a competitive strategy in a complex ecosystem. Because homoacetogens are specialists in C1 metabolism and compete with methanogens and sulfate reducers, methyl groups of meth(ox)ylated carbon compounds are a food source that is relatively less competed for (Schink 1995). Moreover, lignin is abundant in the termite hindgut and lignin derivatives have been postulated to act as methyl donors for methyl-group formation by homoacetogens (Schink 1995). In light of subsequent work with the *T. primitia* meta-cleavage pathway, if *T. azotonutricium* utilizes the methyl groups of lignin-derived aromatics, this could help prepare these substrates for the *T. primitia* catechol 2,3-dioxygenases (*please see Chapter 3*). This hypothesis could be further tested with *T. azotonutricium* and *T. primitia* co-culture experiments (per Rosenthal *et al.* 2011). If further *in vitro* analyses still do not demonstrate acetogenic demethylation by *T. azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9, the culture media conditions should be re-examined.

Enzyme activity assays and expression work

Lastly, it might be worthwhile to **clone** and express these genes in an expression vector such as *E. coli* to evaluate enzyme functionality and activity without variables in the *T. azotonutricium* cultures that may be negatively impacting these genes'/enzymes' functions. These genes can be expressed and evaluated individually or together and enzyme activity assays could be performed. qRT-PCR with primers designed to target relevant genes could also hint at expression or lack thereof.

If with additional work the hypothesis that *T. azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9 is able to bypass the methyl branch of the Wood-Ljungdahl pathway and generate acetate with methyl groups it takes from wood is not supported, at least these experiments demonstrate that an organism, even with a complete set of genes representing a particular function, does not necessarily perform that function.

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CHAPTER 2: APPENDIX

Table 2A-1: Genes annotated as methyl(transfer)ases in the genome of *Treponema azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9.

Fig. 2A-1: Growth of *Treponema azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9 in 1YACo liquid medium under a headspace of 80% N₂/20% CO₂ with 5mM various meth(ox)ylated compounds (specified on graphs) supplemented with 20mM maltose.

Table 2A-2: Student's T-test P-value results (corresponding to Fig. 2A-1).

Fig 2A-2 a, b, c, and d: Growth of *Treponema azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9 in 1YACo liquid medium under a headspace of 80% N₂/20% CO₂ supplemented with 100% H₂ to achieve a final concentration of 0.5% vol/vol and 5mM various meth(ox)ylated compounds. Cultures represented in **c** and **d** also have 5mM maltose.

Table 2A-3: Student's T-test P-value results (corresponding to Fig. 2A-2 C and D).

Table 2A-4: Average highest OD600nm obtained of triplicate cultures.

Fig 2A-3 a and b: Growth of *Treponema azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9 in 1YACo (**a**) or 4YACo (**b**) liquid medium under a headspace of 80% N₂/20% CO₂ and 5mM dimethylamine with 100% H₂ to achieve a final concentration of 0.5% vol/vol and different maltose additions (specified on graphs).

Table 2A-2: Genes annotated as methyl(transfer)ases in the genome of *Treponema azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9.

Table 2A-1: Genes annotated as methyl(transfer)ases in the genome of *Treponema azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9.

<u>Accession #</u>	<u>Annotation</u>
YP_004527701	23S rRNA (guanine-N-2-) - methyltransferase rlmL (EC 2.1.1.-)
YP_004527670	Ribosomal RNA small subunit methyltransferase F (EC 2.1.1.-)
YP_004527552	23S rRNA (Uracil-5-) - methyltransferase rumA (EC 2.1.1.-)
YP_004527273	tRNA (guanine46-N7-) - methyltransferase (EC 2.1.1.33)
YP_004527257	prophage LambdaSo, DNA modification methyltransferase, putative
YP_004527217	Ribosomal RNA small subunit methyltransferase D (EC 2.1.1.-)
YP_004527214	23S rRNA methyltransferase and Florfenicol/chloramphenicol resistance protein /Radical SAM family enzyme, UPF0063 family
YP_004527011	Methyltransferase/methylase
YP_004526961	S-adenosyl-methyltransferase mraW (EC 2.1.1.-)
YP_004526539	COG1092 family predicted tRNA methylase
YP_004526508	tetrapyrrole methylase family protein/MazG family protein
YP_004526426	Methylcobalamin:coenzyme M methyltransferase, methylamine-specific
YP_004526424	Methylcobalamin:coenzyme M methyltransferase, methylamine-specific
YP_004526423	Dimethylamine methyltransferase corrinoid protein
YP_004526420	Methylcobalamin:coenzyme M methyltransferase, methylamine-specific
YP_004526382	Predicted N6-adenine-specific RNA methylase containing THUMP domain
YP_004526350	5-methyltetrahydrofolate--homocysteine methyltransferase (EC 2.1.1.13)
YP_004526265	5-methyltetrahydrofolate:corrinoid

	iron-sulfur protein methyltransferase
YP_004526258	5-methyltetrahydrofolate--homocysteine methyltransferase (EC 2.1.1.13)
YP_004526233	Corrinoid methyltransferase protein
YP_004526169	Uroporphyrinogen-III methyltransferase (EC 2.1.1.107) /Uroporphyrinogen-III synthase (EC 4.2.1.75)
YP_004526097	Putative RNA 2'-O-ribose methyltransferase mtfA (EC 2.1.1.-)
YP_004526087	Tetrapyrrole (Corrin-Porphyrin) methylase family protein UPF0011
YP_004526074	TRNA/rRNA methyltransferase
YP_004526031	hypothetical tRNA/rRNA methyltransferase yfiF [EC:2.1.1.-]
YP_004526023	Methyltransferase (EC 2.1.1.-); N6-adenine-specific DNA methylase
YP_004525911	rRNA methylases
YP_004525892	Serine hydroxymethyltransferase (EC 2.1.2.1)
YP_004525883	Chemotaxis protein methyltransferase CheR (EC 2.1.1.80)
YP_004525782	methyltransferase
YP_004525756	methylated-DNA--protein-cysteine methyltransferase-related protein
YP_004525659	Methylcobalamin:coenzyme M methyltransferase, methanol-specific
YP_004525658	Methylcobalamin:coenzyme M methyltransferase, methanol-specific
YP_004525617	Methylcobalamin:coenzyme M methyltransferase, methanol-specific
YP_004525614	RNA methyltransferase, TrmH family
YP_004525608	DNA modification methylase (Adenine-specific methyltransferase) (EC 2.1.1.72)
YP_004529019	Methyl-directed repair DNA adenine methylase (EC 2.1.1.72)
YP_004529009	Type I restriction-modification system, DNA-methyltransferase subunit M (EC 2.1.1.72)

YP_004528983	Type I restriction-modification system, DNA-methyltransferase subunit M (EC 2.1.1.72)
YP_004528953	tRNA (Guanine37-N1) - methyltransferase (EC 2.1.1.31)
YP_004528906	5-methyltetrahydrofolate--homocysteine methyltransferase (EC 2.1.1.13)
YP_004528849	Methyltransferase gidB (EC 2.1.-.-)
YP_004528840	HEN1 C-terminal domain; double-stranded RNA 3'-methylase
YP_004528749	Methylase of polypeptide chain release factors
YP_004528723	tRNA:Cm32/Um32 methyltransferase
YP_004528722	Small ribosomal subunit 16S rRNA methyltransferase ## U1498-specific in E.coli
YP_004528495	Aminomethyltransferase (glycine cleavage system T protein) (EC 2.1.2.10)
YP_004528467	tRNA (5-methylaminomethyl-2-thiouridylate)-methyltransferase (EC 2.1.1.61)
YP_004528453	Type I restriction-modification system, DNA-methyltransferase subunit M (EC 2.1.1.72)
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YP_004528036	Methylated-DNA--protein-cysteine methyltransferase (EC 2.1.1.63)

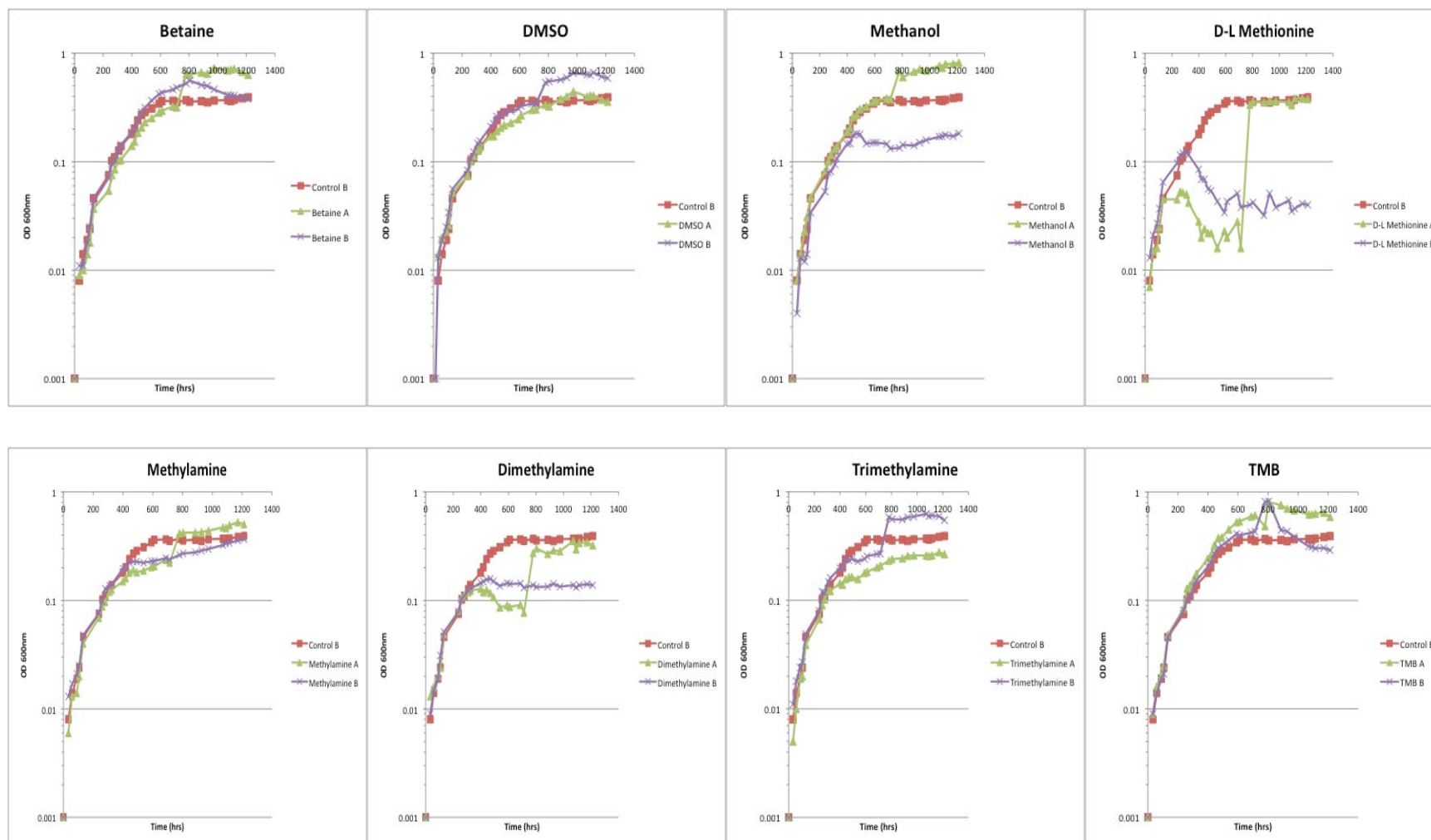


Fig. 2A-1: Growth of *Treponema azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9 in 1YACo liquid medium under a headspace of 80% N₂/20% CO₂ with 5mM various meth(ox)ylated compounds (specified on graphs) supplemented with 20mM maltose. Controls have water instead of the meth(ox)ylated compounds. Small but significant increases in growth yield were observed from cultures of *T. azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9 growing with 5mM DMSO, betaine, or trimethoxybenzoate (TMB). These cultures were incubated in the dark, at room temperature, in a horizontal position, and without agitation. Changes in optical density of growing cultures was a proxy for meth(ox)ylated compound utilization and were measured at 600_{nm} with a Spectronic 20 colorimeter.

Table 2A-2: Student's T-test P-value results

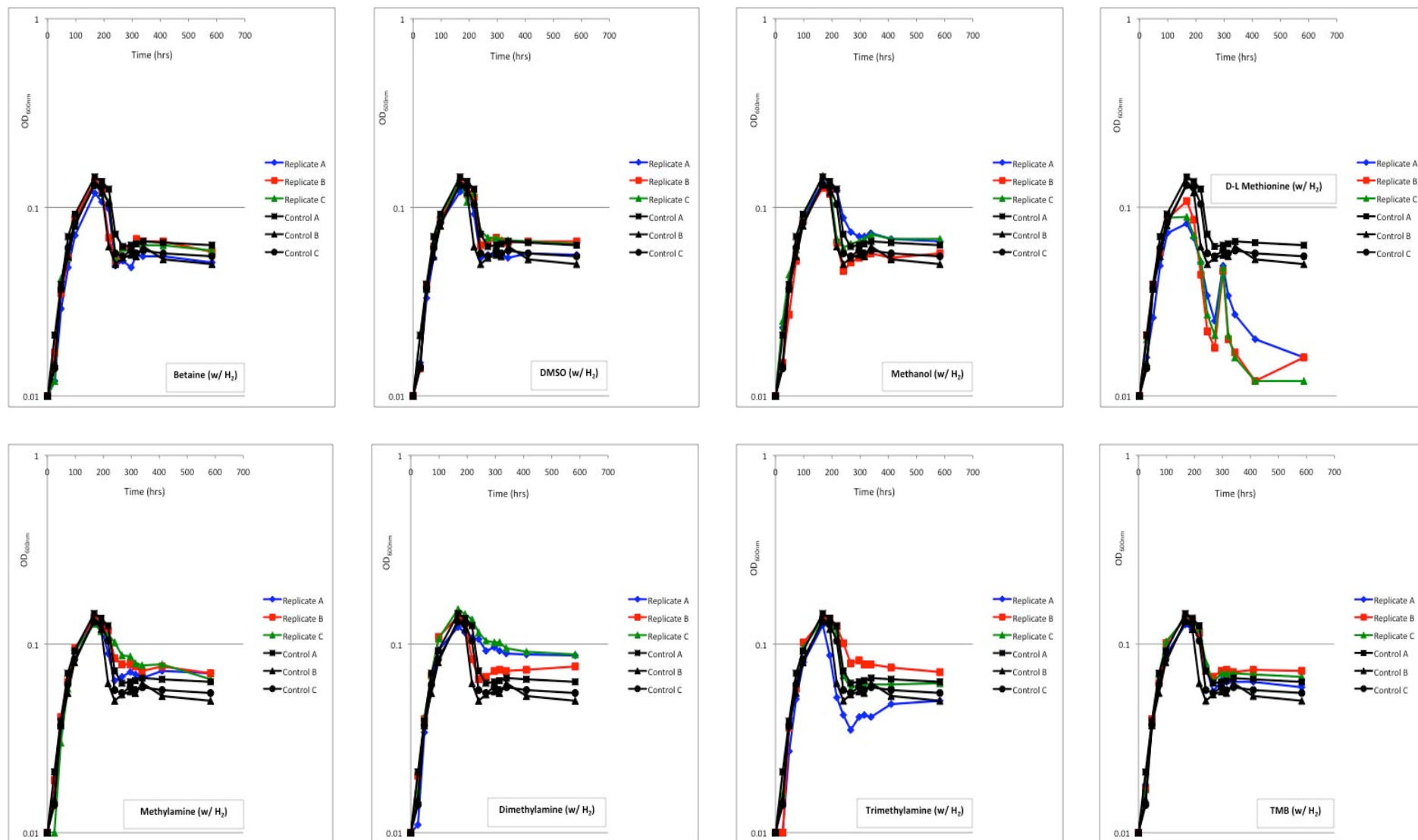
<u>Meth(ox)ylated Compound</u>	<u>P-Value</u>
Betaine	0.0081
DMSO	0.037
Methanol	0.37
D-L Methionine	0.57
Dimethylamine	0.52
Methylamine	0.11
Trimethylamine	0.29
TMB	0.005

Results correspond to Fig. 2A-1.

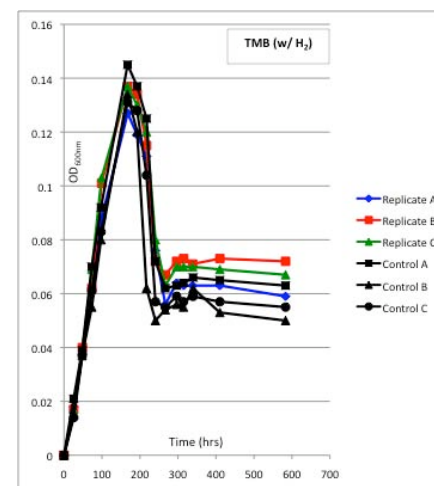
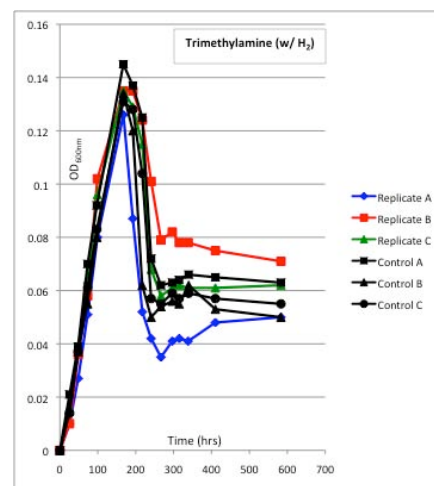
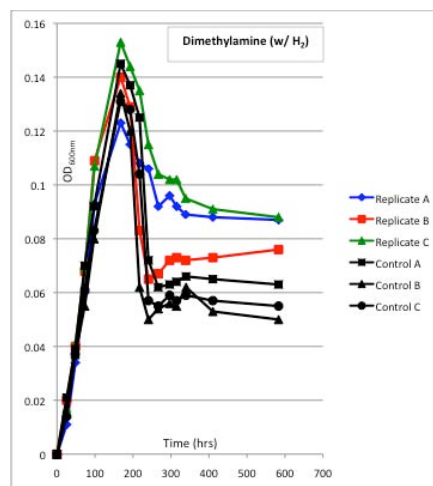
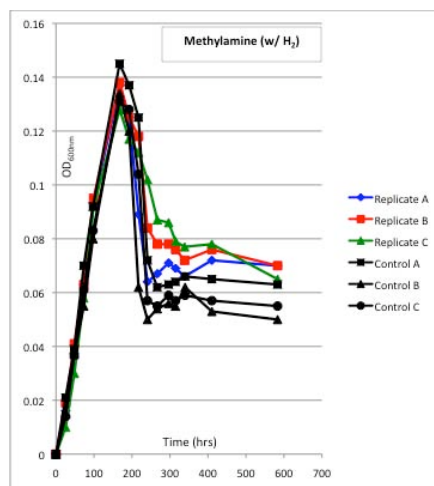
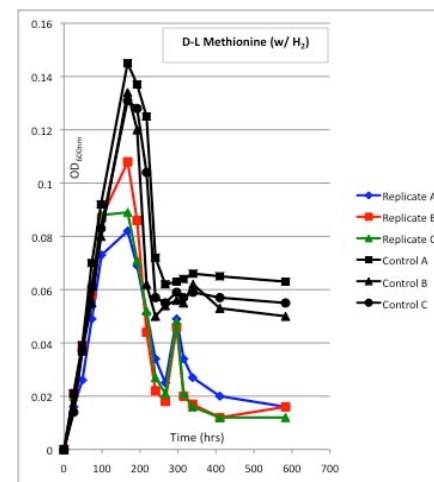
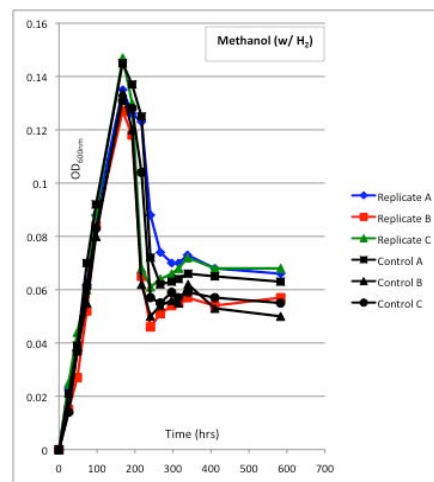
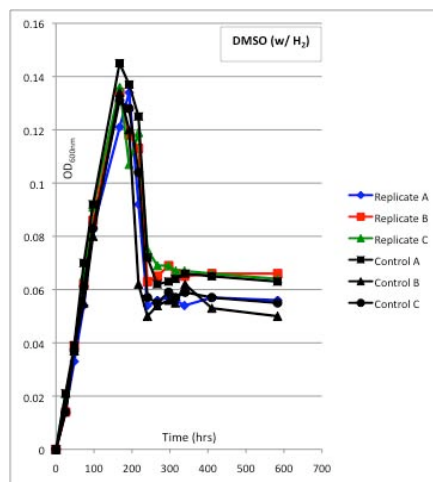
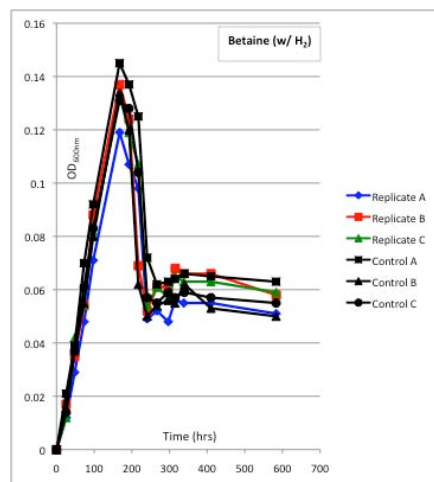
P-value compares highest growth yield (measured OD_{600nm}) achieved by *Treponema azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9 grown with 5mM of various meth(ox)ylated compounds, compared to highest growth yield achieved by controls with water *in lieu* of meth(ox)ylated substrate. Specifically, the means of replicate data representing each group are compared. All cultures were in 1YaCo liquid medium supplemented with 20mM maltose under an 80% N₂/20% CO₂ headspace.

95% confidence level was used, therefore a P-value < 0.05 signifies that the means of the data from each meth(ox)ylated treatment replicate is significantly different from that of the controls (bold).

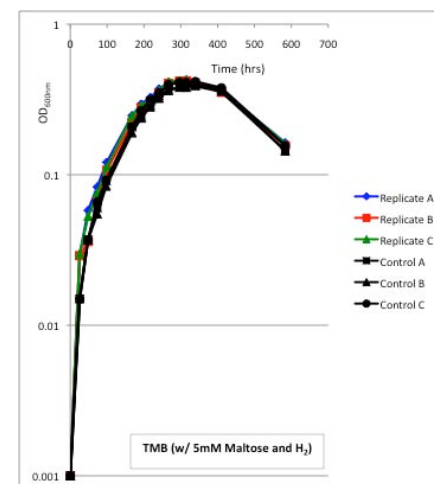
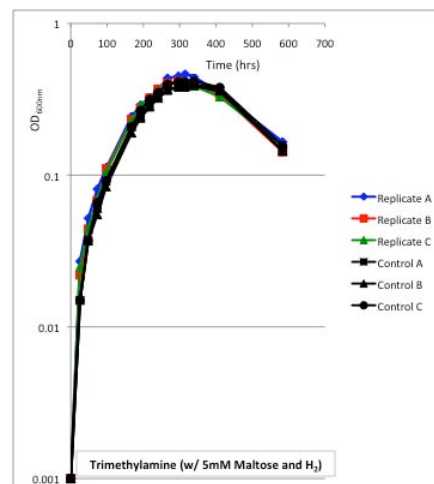
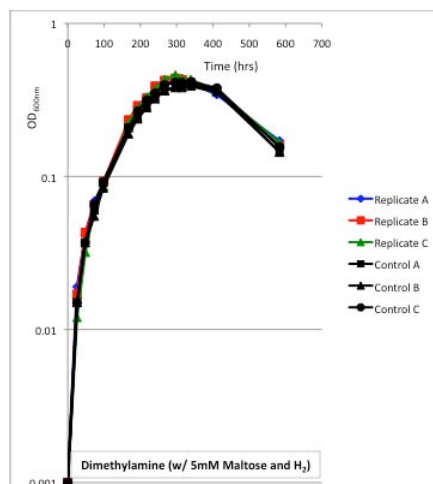
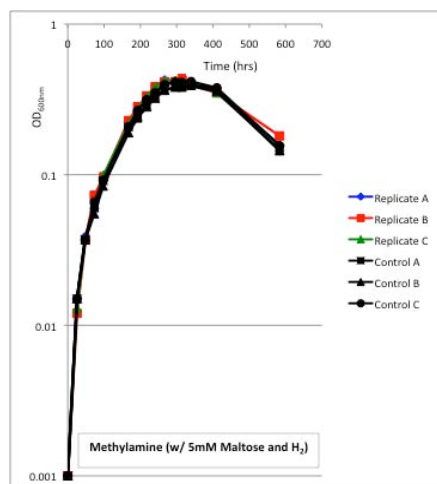
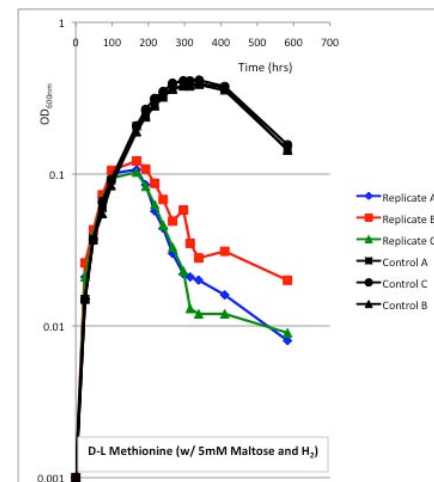
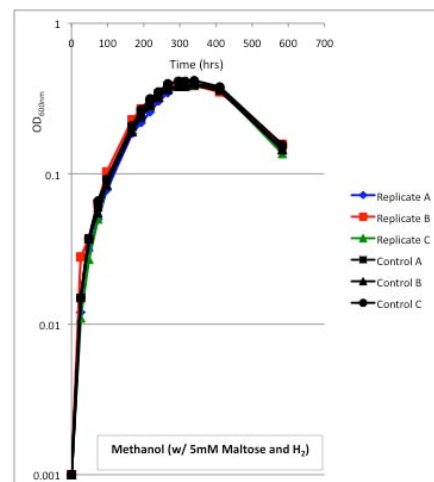
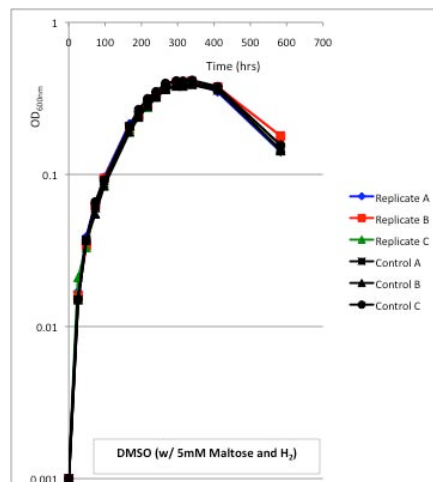
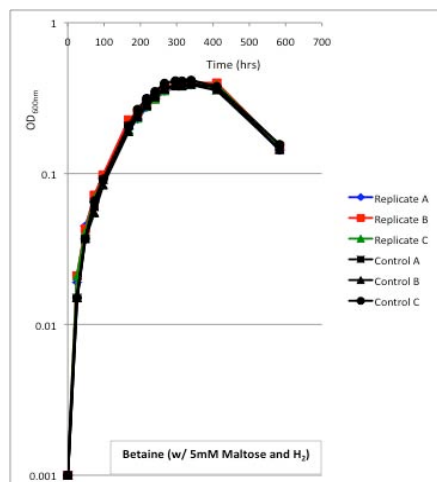
a



b



C



d

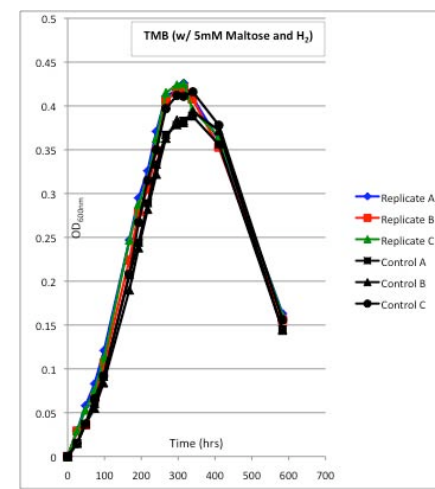
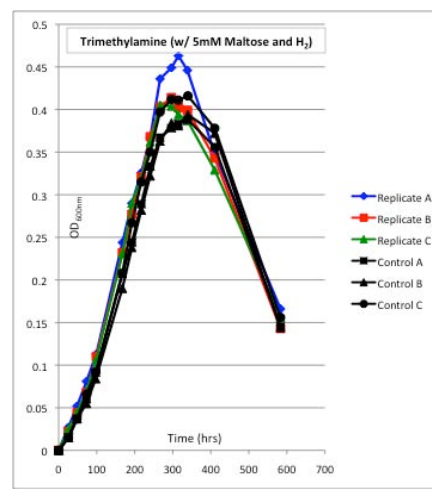
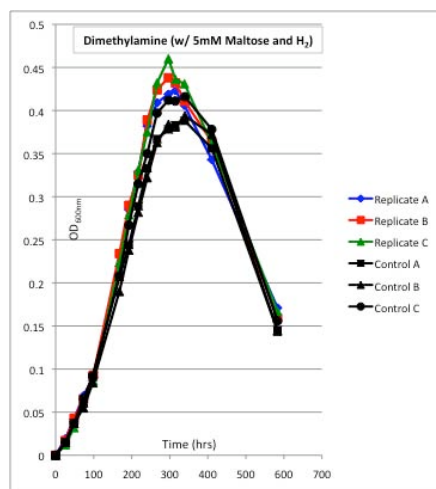
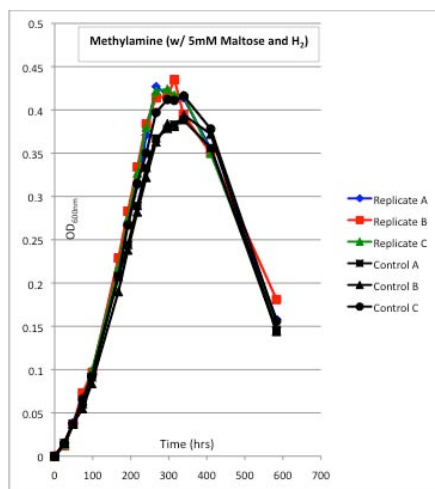
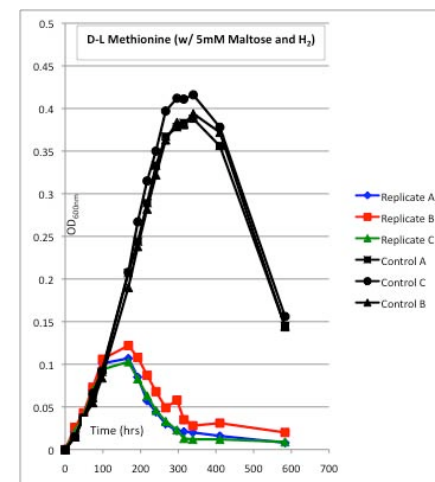
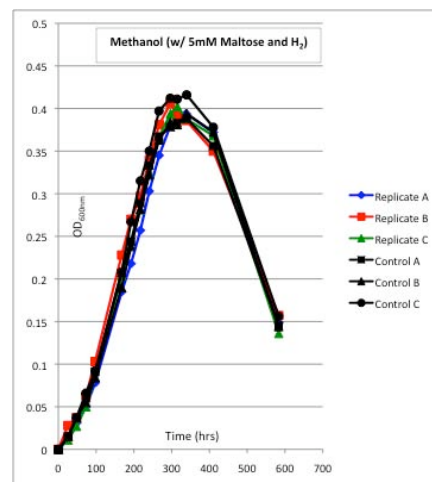
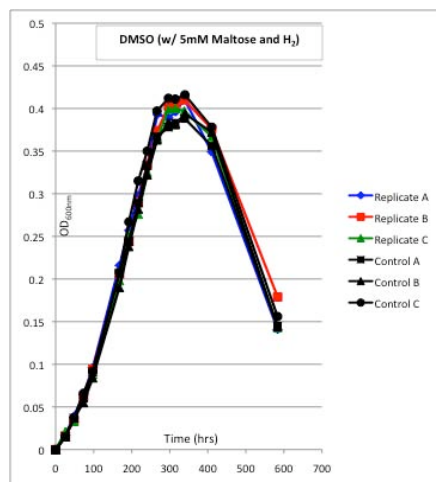
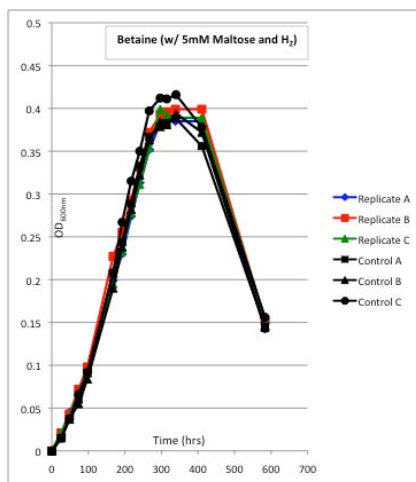


Fig. 2A-2: Growth of *Treponema azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9 in 1YACo liquid medium under a headspace of 80% N₂/20% CO₂ supplemented with 100% H₂ to achieve a final concentration of 0.5% vol/vol and 5mM various meth(ox)ylated compounds (specified on graphs). Controls have water instead of the meth(ox)ylated compounds. Some cultures also have 5mM maltose (**c** and **d**). **a** and **c** graphs are the logarithmic plots of **b** and **d** graphs, respectively. Small but significant increases in growth yield were observed from cultures of *T. azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9 growing with 5mM methylamine, dimethylamine, or trimethoxybenzoate (TMB) and with 5mM maltose. These cultures were incubated in the dark, at room temperature, in a horizontal position, and without agitation. Changes in optical density of growing cultures was a proxy for meth(ox)ylated compound utilization and were measured at 600_{nm} with a Spectronic 20 colorimeter.

Table 2A-3: Student's T-test P-value results

<u>Meth(ox)ylated Compound</u>	<u>P-Value</u>
Betaine	0.65
DMSO	0.45
Methanol	0.89
D-L Methionine	< 0.0001
Methylamine	0.032
Dimethylamine	0.040
Trimethylamine	0.23
TMB	0.048

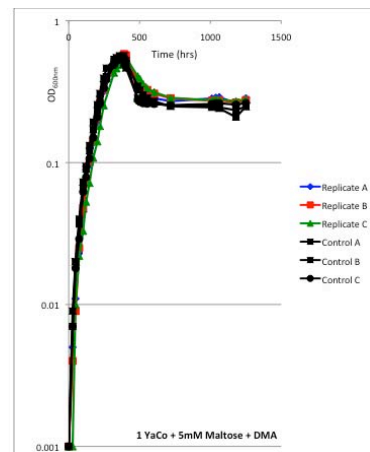
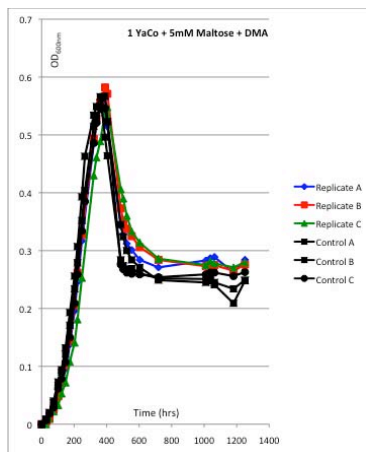
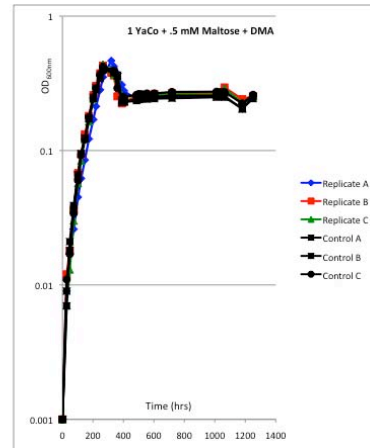
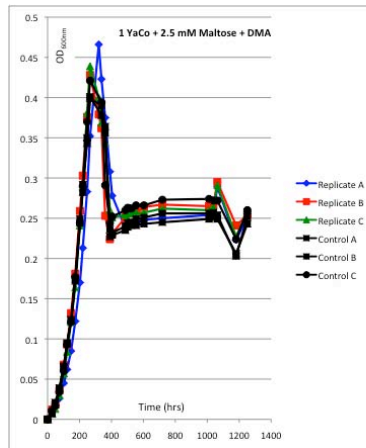
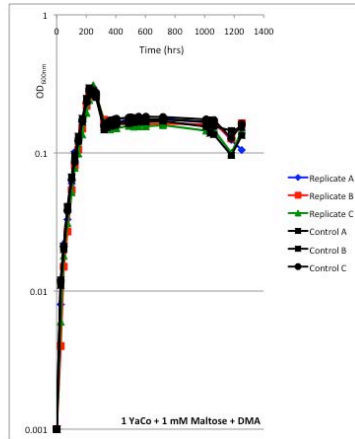
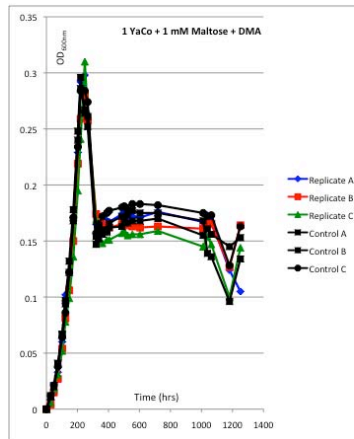
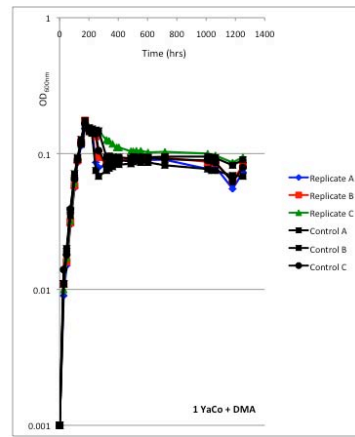
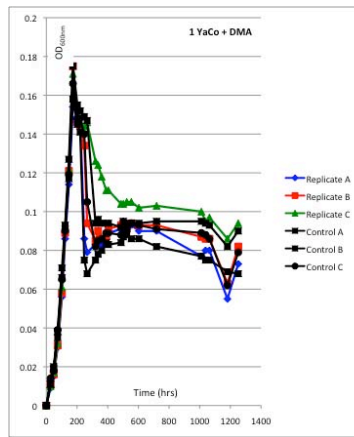
Results correspond to Fig. 2A-2 **c** and **d**.

P-value compares highest growth yield (measured OD_{600nm}) achieved by *Treponema azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9 grown with 5mM of various meth(ox)ylated compounds, compared to highest growth yield achieved by controls with water *in lieu* of meth(ox)ylated substrate. Specifically, the means of replicate data representing each group are compared. All cultures were in 1YaCo liquid medium supplemented with 5mM maltose under an 80% N₂/20% CO₂ headspace to which 100% H₂ was added to 0.5% vol/vol final concentration.

95% confidence level was used, therefore a P-value < 0.05 signifies that the means of the data from each meth(ox)ylated treatment replicate is significantly different from that of the controls (bold).

Table 2A-4: Average highest OD_{600nm} obtained of triplicate cultures

<u>Sample</u>	<u>Highest OD_{600nm} Obtained</u>
4 YaCo, 40mM Maltose	1.31
4 YaCo, 40mM Maltose (w/H ₂)	1.23
1 YaCo, 20mM Maltose	0.484
1 YaCo, 20mM Maltose (w/H ₂)	0.479
1 YaCo, 5mM Maltose	0.399
1 YaCo, 5mM Maltose (w/H ₂)	0.399
1 YaCo	0.126
1 YaCo (w/H ₂)	0.137
<i>All of the following have H₂:</i>	
1 Yaco, 5mM Betaine	0.130
1 YaCo, 5mM Betaine, 5mM Maltose	0.395
1 YaCo, 5mM DMSO	0.135
1 YaCo, 5mM DMSO, 5mM Maltose	0.407
1 YaCo, 5mM Methanol	0.136
1 YaCo, 5mM Methanol, 5mM Maltose	0.401
1 YaCo, 5mM D-L Methionine	0.093
1 YaCo, 5mM D-L Methionine, 5mM Maltose	0.111
1 YaCo, 5mM Methylamine	0.134
1 Yaco, 5mM Methylamine, 5mM Maltose	0.429
1 YaCo, 5mM Dimethylamine	0.139
1 YaCo, 5mM Dimethylamine, 5mM Maltose	0.440
1 YaCo, 5mM Trimethylamine	0.132
1 YaCo, 5mM Trimethylamine, 5mM Maltose	0.427
1 YaCo, 5mM TMB	0.134
1 YaCo, 5mM TMB, 5mM Maltose	0.424

a

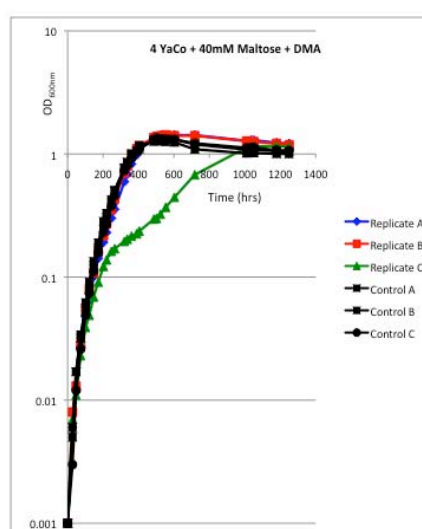
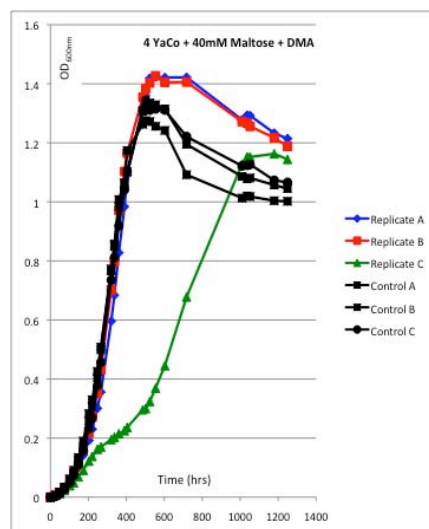
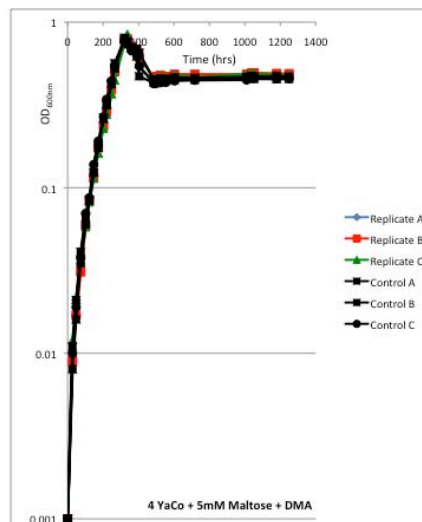
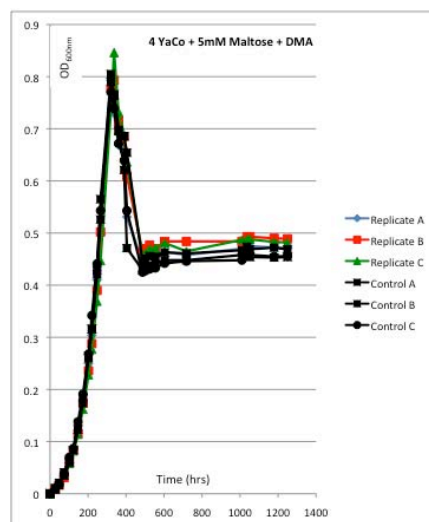
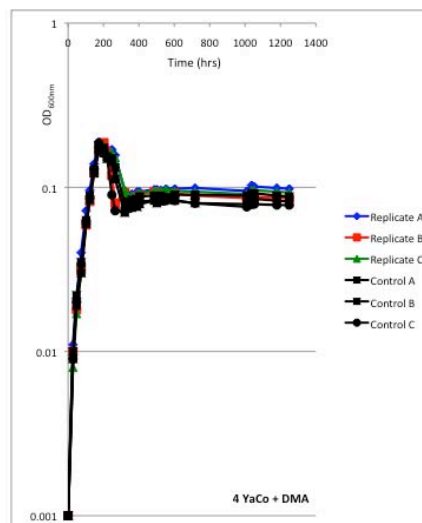
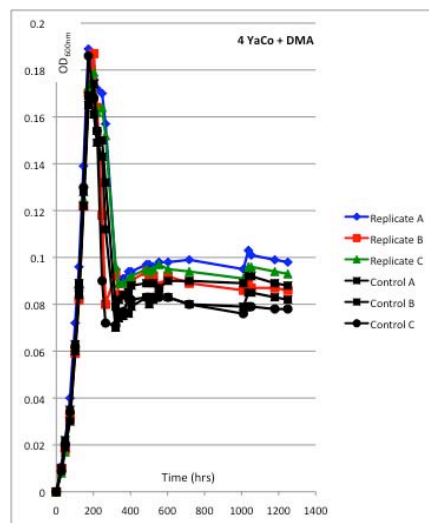
b

Fig. 2A-3: Growth of *Treponema azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9 in (a) 1YACo or (b) 4YACo liquid medium under a headspace of 80% N₂/20% CO₂ supplemented with 100% H₂ to achieve a final concentration of 0.5% vol/vol and dimethylamine with different maltose additions (specified on graphs). Controls have water instead of the meth(ox)ylated compounds. These cultures were incubated in the dark, at room temperature, in a horizontal position, and without agitation. Changes in optical density of growing cultures was a proxy for meth(ox)ylated compound utilization and were measured at 600_{nm} with a Spectronic 20 colorimeter.

CHAPTER 3**Catechol 2,3-dioxygenase and other *meta*-cleavage catabolic pathway genes in the “anaerobic” termite gut spirochete *Treponema primitia*****ABSTRACT:**

Catechol 2,3-dioxygenases were observed in the genomes of strains of the symbiotic termite hindgut “anaerobe,” *Treponema primitia*. Bioinformatics confirmed the presence of a cassette encoding genes, PFAM domains, and expected key residues for enzymes associated with a complete aromatic *meta*-cleavage pathway typical to aerobic pseudomonads. Curiously, transcripts for each gene were even observed expressed in strictly anaerobic cultures of *T. primitia*. Phylogenetic analyses suggest that the dioxygenase and several other essential genes of the *meta*-pathway were acquired by *T. primitia* from an alphaproteobacterium in the distant past, to augment several genes acquired from anaerobic firmicutes that do not directly catabolize aromatics but can contribute to final *meta*-pathway steps. To examine if the genes were functional, cultures of *T. primitia* were adapted to grow in unreduced media containing a microoxic headspace. The addition of catechol resulted in the transient accumulation of trace amounts of a yellow intermediate having the spectrophotometric characteristics of the expected ring cleavage product, hydroxymuconic semialdehyde. This is the first evidence for aromatic ring cleavage in the phylum (division) *Spirochetes*. Catechol 2,3-dioxygenase *meta*-cleavage pathways are not found widespread across the bacterial line of descent, previously having been observed, via physiology or genomics, restricted to select species representing only three of the major bacterial phyla (divisions):

Proteobacteria, *Firmicutes*, and *Actinobacteria*. However, *T. primitia* did not consume catechol to exhaustion nor exhibit any marked stimulations in growth or acetate yield. Nevertheless, the results suggest that the potential for O₂-dependent yet non-respiratory metabolisms of plant-derived and other aromatics should be re-evaluated in termite hindgut communities.

INTRODUCTION:

Many termites thrive on one of the planet's most abundant forms of biomass, wood, comprised primarily of cellulose, hemicellulose, and lignin (Breznak & Brune 1994). The presence and many roles of the complex, obligate, and nutritionally-mutualistic symbiotic microbial communities in termite guts during the metabolic processing of lignocellulose has long been established (Leidy 1877; Cleveland 1926; Hungate 1955; Yamin & Trager 1979; Yamin 1980). In the wood-feeding, phylogenetically "lower" termites, symbiotic hindgut protozoa are known to hydrolyze wood polysaccharides and ferment the resulting sugar monomers into acetate, carbon dioxide, and hydrogen (Hungate 1955; Yamin 1980; Odelson & Breznak 1983; Odelson & Breznak 1985a; Odelson & Breznak 1985b; Breznak & Brune 1994). Homoacetogenic bacteria then transform the H₂ + CO₂ into additional acetate (Breznak & Switzer 1986; Brauman *et al.* 1992; Leadbetter *et al.* 1999; Pester & Brune 2007). Polysaccharide-derived acetate serves as the oxidizable energy source as well as a precursor of amino acids, hydrocarbons, and terpenes in the wood-feeding host insect (Blomquist *et al.* 1979; Mauldin 1982; Odelson & Breznak 1983; Breznak & Switzer 1986; Brauman *et al.* 1992). Together, termites and their gut

microbiota are prime examples of tiny and natural bioreactors operative on a massive scale in many terrestrial environments (Brune 1998a).

As reviewed previously (Breznak & Brune 1994), the fate of the most inaccessible component of lignocellulose in the diet of wood feeding termites, lignin, has been and remains comparatively unclear and often controversial (Butler & Buckerfield 1979; Cookson 1987; Pasti *et al.* 1990; Breznak & Brune 1994; Kuhnigk *et al.* 1994; Scharf & Tartar 2008; Tartar *et al.* 2009; Scharf & Boucias 2010; Sethi *et al.* 2013). Reliably measuring the oxidation of C¹⁴-labelled lignins before, during, and after passage through the termite gut tract has been challenging (Butler & Buckerfield 1979; Cookson 1987; Pasti *et al.* 1990; Breznak & Brune 1994; Kuhnigk *et al.* 1994; Brune *et al.* 1995a). In addition, studies have hypothesized that O₂ is a necessary co-substrate for the complete degradation of lignin aromatic monomers (Brune *et al.* 1995a). Studies over the past two decades have revealed that the hindguts of termites contain various levels of oxygen in the periphery, and that only the central portions of the hindgut are totally anoxic (Brune *et al.* 1995b; Brune 1998a; Kappler & Brune 1999; Kappler & Brune 2002; Zimmer & Brune 2005; Pester & Brune 2007). Cultivation and gene-based results have revealed that microorganisms with varying degrees of oxygen tolerance and oxygen metabolisms are operative as bona fide members of termite gut communities (Leadbetter & Breznak 1996; Shima *et al.* 1999; Shima *et al.* 2001; Boga & Brune 2003; Boga *et al.* 2003; Tholen *et al.* 2007; Wertz & Breznak 2007a; Wertz & Breznak 2007b; Wertz *et al.* 2012).

In an effort to glean more about roles of the gut microbiota in the symbiosis, the genomes of three strains of sugar and H₂ metabolizing termite gut symbiotic spirochetes and the partial termite gut metagenome, all previously described, were compared (Warnecke *et al.* 2007; Rosenthal *et al.* 2011; Ballor *et al.* 2012). Many genes of interest in the metagenomic dataset were represented in the genomes of the isolates, confirming another level of their validity as models for *in vitro* studies (Warnecke *et al.* 2007; Rosenthal *et al.* 2011; Ballor *et al.* 2012). Perhaps more surprising, though, were numerous examples of genes present in the isolates that were not represented in the larger (albeit not exhaustive) metagenomic dataset. Here, a subset of such genes that have relevance to oxygen and aromatic metabolism in the termite hindgut from two strains of *Treponema primitia* are described.

MATERIALS AND METHODS:

Media and cultivation

Routine *in vitro* growth and maintenance of *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 in 2YACo medium was as previously described (Leadbetter *et al.* 1999; Graber & Breznak 2004; Graber *et al.* 2004). For examination of the microoxic growth of *T. primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2, the growth medium was reformulated to contain no dithiothreitol (DTT) or other reducing agent, no resazurin (a redox indicator), and no maltose (unless used as a substrate for positive controls). The headspace was 80% N₂/20% CO₂. To serum-stoppered culture tubes of this unreduced medium, room air was injected through a 0.2µm filter into the culture headspace (to achieve a final concentration of 0.5% O₂, vol/vol) prior to or at the time of inoculation.

These cultures were incubated at 25°C in a horizontal position without agitation. Because *T. primitia* str. ZAS-1 grew more successfully than *T. primitia* str. ZAS-2 under these conditions, *T. primitia* str. ZAS-1 was used for further liquid culture physiological experiments with this microoxic regime.

It is noteworthy that the “YACo” media formulation contains cofactors required of all the *meta*-cleavage pathway enzymes (catechol 2,3-dioxygenase requires Fe^{2+} ; 2-oxopent-4-enoate hydratase requires Mn^{2+} or Mg^{2+} (Izumi *et al.* 2007); 4-hydroxy-2-oxopentanoate aldolase requires Mn^{2+} (Lei *et al.* 2008); acetaldehyde dehydrogenase requires CoASH and NAD^+ (Lei *et al.* 2008)).

Growth in the presence of aromatic compounds

Individual 50mM stock solutions of catechol, guaiacol, veratrole, protocatechualdehyde, protocatechuic acid, vanillic acid, gallic acid, homoprotocatechuic acid, homoveratric acid, hydrocaffeic acid, caffeic acid, and ferulic acid were prepared under N_2 and stored in the dark. As needed, stock solutions were neutralized with NaOH during the preparations.

Liquid cultures of *T. primitia* str. ZAS-1 (prepared as described above for examination of microoxic growth and with 0.5mM aromatic compound) were screened for increases in growth rate and yield as a proxy for acetate generation from *meta*-cleavage pathway metabolism of aromatic compounds. Changes in optical density of growing cultures were measured at 600_{nm} with a Spectronic 20 colorimeter. UV/Vis absorbance spectra were obtained using a Cary WinUV Spectrophotometer.

For the examination of growth in oxygen gradients, 1mL of molten 3% agarose containing 10mM catechol, protocatechuic acid, hydrocaffeic acid, or caffeic acid (or water as a negative control) was dispensed into 25mL Balch tubes. After hardening, this plug was overlaid with 10mL of a molten agarose medium. The medium used was the unreduced 2YACo medium supplemented with low melting point agarose to a final concentration of 0.8%, and resazurin as an oxygen and redox indicator. Upon agarose additions to the Balch tubes, care was taken to ensure residual agarose did not stick to the walls of the tube so that the level of agarose in the tubes was consistent among the tubes. Once the agarose hardened, sterile tuberculin syringes with 6in., 18ga. needles were used to inoculate a consistent volume (400μL) of *T. primitia* cells (or water as a control) along the vertical length of the agarose. Room air was then injected through a 0.2μm filter into the culture headspace to achieve a headspace concentration of 4% O₂, 70% N₂, 10% CO₂, vol/vol. Cultures were cultivated at 25°C in a vertical position. *T. primitia* str. ZAS-2 was used for these initial gradient tube experiments in addition to *T. primitia* str. ZAS-1 to see if it could establish itself in an optimal O₂/aromatic gradient and grow more successfully than in liquid media. Still, however, *T. primitia* str. ZAS-1 performed better under these conditions and was used for subsequent gradient tube experiments.

Enrichments

Enrichment cultures to obtain a fresh, O₂/aromatic-metabolizing isolate from the termite hindgut environment were prepared from the whole gut contents of a *Zootermopsis nevadensis* worker termite. Enrichment culture media was prepared

as described above for examination of microoxic growth, also with 0.5mM aromatic compound (*see Chapter 1 for enrichment and isolation protocol*). Enrichment cultures with ferulic acid or vanillic acid did transiently turn various shades of yellow for the first two sets of transfers, but not after, suggestive that at some early point in enrichment work O₂/aromatic-metabolizing organisms might have been present in these enrichments. This bodes promising for future attempts at enrichment and isolation.

Bioinformatics

Sequences were obtained from a variety of sources: JGI IMG/M (Markowitz *et al.* 2006); NCBI BLAST (Geer *et al.* 2010); Sanger Pfam (Punta *et al.* 2012); CAMERA (Sun *et al.* 2011); and JCVI CMR (Davidsen *et al.* 2010) to collect as complete of a dataset as possible. For the construction of phylogenetic trees, initially individual datasets ranging from approximately 500 to 1500 top BLAST sequence hits corresponding to each of the *Treponema primitia* meta-cleavage pathway proteins, or Pfam domains, were assembled. Datasets were collected by looking for natural cut-offs in sequence identity and similarity in BLAST results, instead of choosing an arbitrary number of the top BLAST hits, as to not miss potentially relevant sequences.

For each protein or Pfam CLUSTALW, MAFFT, DIALIGN, T-Coffee, and MUSCLE alignments were generated on the Mobyle Server and compared (Néron *et al.* 2009). Consistently, MUSCLE generated the best alignments and therefore sequences were unambiguously aligned using this program (Fig. 3-3b). Conservative filters were

used to disregard columns of data containing sequence gaps or ambiguous alignments. After initial analyses, phylograms using fewer and more relevant sequences from the original large datasets were prepared using packages within ARB v. 5.2 (Ludwig *et al.* 2004) and Mr. Bayes v. 3.2 using mixed-model settings (Huelsenbeck & Ronquist 2001; Ronquist & Huelsenbeck 2003). Additional details of tree construction are found in the tree legends. Accession numbers are reported in Appendix (Appendix Table 3A-1).

Putative promoter regions within or adjacent to the *meta*-cleavage pathway gene neighborhoods were determined using Virtual Footprint v. 3.0 (Münch *et al.* 2005). For examination of the genes using selection pressure models, MEGA v. 5.05 (Tamura *et al.* 2007) was used. The several models tested included a positive selection hypothesis ($dS > dN$) via a codon-based Z-test: NG86 (Nei-Gojobori method with Jukes-Cantor nucleotide substitution model); modified NG86 (modified Nei-Gojobori methods with the Jukes-Cantor nucleotide substitution model); LWL85 (Li-Wu-Lou method); PBL85 (Pamilo-Bianchi-Li method); and Kumar (Kumar method). Results are reported as the overall average of pair-wise analyses of the following number of unambiguous codon positions without gaps for each gene: ferredoxin-like peptide, 73; catechol 2,3-dioxygenase, 291; 2-hydroxymuconic semialdehyde hydrolase, 264; 2-oxopent-4-enoate hydratase, 260; 4-hydroxy-2-oxopentanoate aldolase, 313; and acetaldehyde dehydrogenase, 261. All analyses were run with 1000 bootstrap replicates. Z must be less than zero ($dS > dN$) in a statistically significant manner to indicate positive selection. “ND” denotes cases in which it was not possible to estimate evolutionary distances.

For examination of key residues and other features of the putative *meta*-cleavage pathway proteins in *T. primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2, as well as in other organisms, data were obtained from RAST (Aziz *et al.* 2008), Meta-Cyc (Caspi *et al.* 2012), and KEGG (Kanehisa & Goto 2000), in addition to the databases noted above. These analyses, coupled with extensive literature review, were also used to determine where across the bacterial line of descent catechol 2,3-dioxygenase *meta*-cleavage pathways are found.

For examination of relevant gene expression under routine cultivation conditions, data obtained in a previous study was re-analyzed (Rosenthal *et al.* 2011). First, expression data from all *T. primitia* str. ZAS-2 genes were compared to gauge the range of reads/kb measurements (Appendix Table 3A-2) (Rosenthal *et al.* 2011). Next, expression data for each *meta*-cleavage pathway gene was evaluated relative to other genes including those representing house keeping and other and metabolic functions (Appendix Table 3A-3).

Enzyme activity assays

Activity assays for catechol 2,3-dioxygenase were conducted with 0.5mM catechol, 50mM potassium phosphate buffer, and 10μL crude cell lysate in a final volume of 1mL at room temperature in the dark. Catechol was added to begin reaction and reaction was exposed to room air and inverted for O₂ exposure. Although many iterations of assays were performed, none yielded results. Iterations were a combination of:

- Adding catechol and O₂ to cultures at various time points prior to the assay to allow cultures to begin to express catechol 2,3-dioxygenase in anticipation of assay
- Not adding catechol or O₂ until the time of the enzyme assay so that maximum activity has not already occurred prior to assay
- Preparing crude lysate from 100x concentrated exponential phase *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-1 cultures
- Disrupting *T. primitia* str. ZAS-1 cells via CellLytic (microscope check confirmed approximately 50% of cells disrupted)
- Disrupting *T. primitia* str. ZAS-1 cells via sonication (microscope check confirmed approximately 80% of cells disrupted)
- Disrupting *T. primitia* str. ZAS-1 cells via microsonication (on ice) (microscope check confirmed approximately 80% of cells disrupted)
- Preparing crude cell lysate under N₂
- Adding 3μL of 2.1g/100mL FeSO₄ to reaction mix to ensure enough Fe²⁺ cofactor was available

An appropriate positive control would be *Pseudomonas putida* and an appropriate negative control would be *T. azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9, but these were not examined here (Kita *et al.* 1999).

RESULTS:

Reciprocal BLAST revealed catechol 2,3-dioxygenase in *Treponema primitia*

To compare the metabolic potentials of phylogenetically “higher” and “lower” termite hindgut microbes using available datasets, reciprocal BLAST analyses were conducted between genomes from three “lower” termite hindgut isolates, *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-1 (3.8Mb) and ZAS-2 (4.1Mb), and *T. azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9 (3.9Mb) (Leadbetter *et al.* 1999; Graber & Breznak 2004; Graber *et al.* 2004; Rosenthal *et al.* 2011; Ballor *et al.* 2012), and the P3 hindgut region

metagenome from the “higher” termite, *Nasutitermes* sp. (62Mb) (Warnecke *et al.* 2007). Specifically, genes present in any of the three “lower” termite hindgut isolates’ genomes, but not in the “higher” termite hindgut metagenome, and vice versa, were identified. 21%, 20%, and 17% of the *T. primitia* str. ZAS-1, *T. primitia* str. ZAS-2, and *T. azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9 genomes, respectively, had no orthologs in the metagenomic dataset (*see Discussion for why metagenome dataset does not represent full-coverage of “higher” termite sample*) (Appendix Table 3A-4). Among those non-orthologs, a putative “catechol 2,3-dioxygenase” gene was found in each of the *T. primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 genomes, but not in the *T. azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9 genome (Appendix Table 3A-4). No catechol 2,3-dioxygenase homologs were found in the “higher” termite metagenome either, thus corroborating earlier analyses (Appendix Table 3A-4) (Warnecke *et al.* 2007). Because catechol 2,3-dioxygenase is a key enzyme of the *meta*-cleavage pathway of many aerobic bacteria and both strains are considered anaerobes - and preliminary gene function assignments are often prone to error - a more in depth evaluation of the genome and metabolic potentials for O₂-dependent aromatic metabolism by *T. primitia* was initiated.

***Treponema primitia* strains ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 have genes representing complete catechol 2,3-dioxygenase *meta*-cleavage pathways**

As background, during the metabolism of many aromatic compounds numerous preparative or “upper” pathways generate (di)hydroxylated intermediates from a wider range of structurally diverse aromatic compounds. Then, “lower” pathways transform the resulting aromatics into non-aromatic, central cell metabolites

(Viggiani *et al.* 2004; Siani *et al.* 2006). Catechol 2,3-dioxygenases are often employed to catalyze the key ring cleavage step in such “lower” pathways of monoaromatic metabolism (Fig. 3-1).

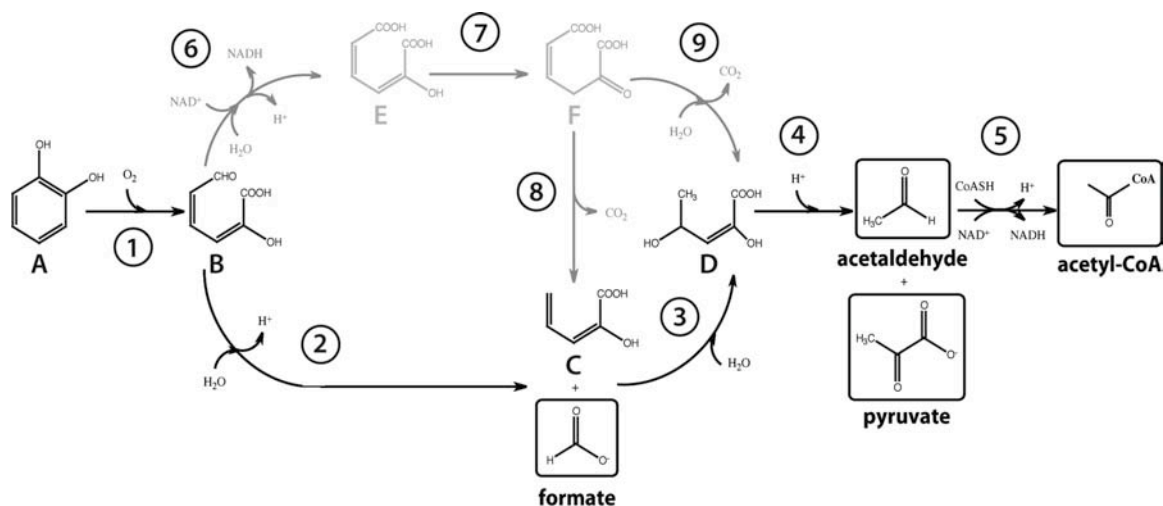


Fig. 3-1: Catechol 2,3-dioxygenase-based *meta*-cleavage pathway of aromatic metabolism and shunts. *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 have genes for a complete *meta*-cleavage pathway represented by steps 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5 (black). Two alternative routes (grey) are, Shunt A: steps 1, 6, 7, 8, 3, 4, and 5 (skips step 2) Shunt B: steps 1, 6, 7, 9, 4, and 5 (skips steps 2 and 3). Substrates and products are A: catechol; B: 2-hydroxymuconic semialdehyde; C: 2-oxopent-4-enoate; D: 4-hydroxy-2-oxopentanoate, E: 2-hydroxymuconic acid, and F: γ -oxalocrotonate. Central cell metabolite products are outlined in boxes. Enzymes represented are: 1, catechol 2,3-dioxygenase; 2, 2-hydroxymuconic semialdehyde hydrolase; 3, 2-oxopent-4-enoate hydratase; 4, 4-hydroxy-2-oxopentanoate aldolase; 5, acetaldehyde dehydrogenase; 6, 2-hydroxymuconic semialdehyde dehydrogenase; 7, 4-oxalocrotonate tautomerase; 8, 4-oxalocrotonate decarboxylase; and 9, 4-oxalocrotonate carboxy-lyase.

Catechol 2,3-dioxygenases are classified as extradiol dioxygenases, thus the “lower” pathways they initiate are often referred to as “*meta*-cleavage” pathways (Bugg & Winfield 1998; Vaillancourt *et al.* 2006). Catechol 2,3-dioxygenases, therefore,

typically function in conjunction with a suite of up to eight other *meta*-pathway enzymes including: 2-hydroxymuconic semialdehyde hydrolase (PF00561, step 2); 2-oxopent-4-enoate hydratase (PF01557, step 3); 4-hydroxy-2-oxopentanoate aldolase (PF00682 and PF07836, step 4); acetaldehyde dehydrogenase (PF01118 and PF09290, step 5); 2-hydroxymuconic semialdehyde dehydrogenase (PF00171, step 6); 4-oxalocrotonate tautomerase (PF01361, step 7); 4-oxalocrotonate decarboxylase (PF01557, step 8); and 4-oxalocrotonate carboxy-lyase (PF01557, step 9) (Table 3-1, Fig. 3-1) (Harayama *et al.* 1987; Harayama & Rekik 1990; Furukawa *et al.* 1993; Suenaga *et al.* 2007). An associated ferredoxin-like peptide (PF00111, step 1') plays an indirect pathway role, reactivating O₂-inactivated catechol 2,3-dioxygenase by reducing its oxidized iron cofactor (Table 3-1, Fig. 3-1) (Polissi & Harayama 1993; Hugo *et al.* 2000). Catechol 2,3-dioxygenase initiated *meta*-cleavage pathways generally proceed via one route (Fig. 3-1, black, steps: 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5), but two alternative shunts are known (Fig. 3-1, grey, Shunt A: steps 1, 6, 7, 8, 3, 4, and 5, Shunt B: steps 1, 6, 7, 9, 4, and 5) (Khajamohiddin *et al.* 2008). In an effort to determine whether the annotation of genes in *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 as being “catechol 2,3-dioxygenases” is valid, their gene neighborhoods (and the rest of their genomes) were analyzed for the presence of other key genes for *meta*-cleavage pathways.

Table 3-1: *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 *meta*-cleavage pathway genes and pfam features

Step	Gene Annotation	Present in		Protein Size (a.a.) in		Pfam(s) Represented (PF#, family, domain)	Pfam Residues in	
		str. ZAS-1	str. ZAS-2	str. ZAS-1	str. ZAS-2		str. ZAS-1	str. ZAS-2
1'	ferredoxin-like peptide	+	+	98	94	PF00111, Fer2, [2Fe-2S] cluster binding	13-85	14-85
1	catechol 2,3-dioxygenase	+	+	308	308	PF00903, Glyoxalase, glyoxalase/bleomycin resistance protein/dioxygenase PF00903, Glyoxalase, glyoxalase/bleomycin resistance protein/dioxygenase	12-76 151-266	12-68 151-266
2	2-hydroxymuconic semialdehyde hydrolase	+	+	274	274	PF00561, Abhydrolase 1, α/β hydrolase fold	32-266	32-266
3	2-oxopent-4-enoate hydratase	+	+	260	260	PF01557, FAA hydrolase, fumarylacetoacetate hydrolase	61-259	60-259
4	4-hydroxy-2-oxopentanoate aldolase	+	+	340	335	PF00682, HMGL-like, HMGL-like PF07836, DmpG comm., DmpG-like communication	19-250 274-339	14-245 269-334
5	acetaldehyde dehydrogenase	+	+	291	288	PF01118, Semialdehyde dh, semialdehyde dehydrogenase NAD binding PF09290, Acetdehyd dimer, prokaryotic acetaldehyde dehydrogenase dimerisation	7-116 126-262	5-114 124-260
6	2-hydroxymuconic semialdehyde dehydrogenase	-	-			PF00171 Aldedh, aldehyde dehydrogenase family		
7	4-oxalocrotonate tautomerase	-	-			PF01361 Tautomerase, tautomerase enzyme		
8	4-oxalocrotonate decarboxylase	-	-			PF01557 FAA hydrolase, fumarylacetoacetate hydrolase		
9	4-oxalocrotonate carboxy-lyase	-	-			PF01557 FAA hydrolase, fumarylacetoacetate hydrolase		

In both *T. primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2, directly upstream of the putative “catechol 2,3-dioxygenase” are four other putative *meta*-cleavage pathway genes (Fig. 3-2). Collectively, in order they are: 2-hydroxymuconic semialdehyde hydrolase; 2-oxopent-4-enote hydratase; acetaldehyde dehydrogenase; 4-hydroxy-2-oxopentanoate aldolase; ferredoxin-like peptide; and catechol 2,3-dioxygenase (Fig. 3-2). Thus, *T. primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 have genes representing all key enzymatic steps known for the better studied *meta*-pathway route, but not for either of the alternative shunts (Fig. 3-1 in black).

Pfams and conserved residues in *Treponema primitia meta*-pathway genes suggest functionality

The 2-hydroxymuconic semialdehyde hydrolase; 2-oxopent-4-enote hydratase; acetaldehyde dehydrogenase; 4-hydroxy-2-oxopentanoate aldolase; ferredoxin-like peptide; and catechol 2,3-dioxygenase in *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2,

are consistent in size with their equivalent, reported, functional *meta*-cleavage pathway genes, and each genes' corresponding protein has the expected Pfam (protein family) domains and conserved amino acid residues suggestive of *meta*-pathway functionality (Table 3-1; Appendix Fig. 3A-1) (Díaz & Timmis 1995; Kita *et al.* 1999; Nardini & Dijkstra 1999; Holmquist 2000; Nandhagopal *et al.* 2001; Rea *et al.* 2005; Izumi *et al.* 2007; Lei *et al.* 2008).

The *T. primitia* str. ZAS-1 ferredoxin-like peptide has one Family Fer2, [2Fe-2S] cluster binding domain (PF00111) spanning 73 residues (13 to 85) of the 98 amino acid-long protein consistent with other studied *meta*-pathway ferredoxins (Table 3-1; Appendix Fig. 3A-1) (Aziz *et al.* 2008; Punta *et al.* 2012). Likewise the *T. primitia* str. ZAS-2 ferredoxin-like peptide has one Family Fer2, [2Fe-2S] cluster binding domain (PF00111) spanning 72 residues (14 to 85) of the 94 amino acid-long protein (Table 3-1; Appendix Fig. 3A-1) (Aziz *et al.* 2008; Punta *et al.* 2012). The *T. primitia* str. ZAS-1 ferredoxin-like peptide has an active site comprised of Val-36, Ser-37, Gly-43, Gly-46, Ala-47, and Leu-80, and an iron-binding site that also contributes to activity comprised of Cys-40, Cys-45, Cys-48, and Cys-81 (Appendix Fig. 3A-1) (Aziz *et al.* 2008). The *T. primitia* str. ZAS-2 ferredoxin-like peptide has the same features except for a Thr-37 instead of a Ser-37 in the active site (Appendix Fig. 3A-1) (Aziz *et al.* 2008). The four cysteine residues are highly conserved among catechol 2,3-dioxygenase-associated ferredoxins, and have a conserved role also as ligands for the [2Fe-2S] cluster (Hugo *et al.* 2000).

Next, both the *T. primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 catechol 2,3-dioxygenases are 308 amino acids in length, consistent with the residue span of previously reported catechol 2,3-dioxygenases (Table 3-1; Appendix Fig. 3A-1) (Kita *et al.* 1999; Viggiani *et al.* 2004). Also like known catechol 2,3-dioxygenases, the *T. primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 genes each contain an N- and C-terminal domain that both represent the glyoxalase/bleomycin resistance protein/dioxygenase superfamily of proteins (PF00903) (Table 3-1; Appendix Fig. 3A-1). The sizes of each of those domains in both the *T. primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 gene also correlate with published lengths (Table 3-1; Appendix Fig. 3A-1).

Previous primary structure analysis of nearly 40 diverse catechol 2,3-dioxygenase sequences suggests that conserved residues include three metal ligands, His-146, His-210, and Glu-260, and three additional active site residues, His-195, His-241, and Tyr-250. The other strictly-conserved residues, Gly-28, Leu-165, and Pro-254, are remote from the active site, and thus are likely to play structural or folding roles (Suenaga *et al.* 2009). These conserved residues are all found in the *T. primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 catechol 2,3-dioxygenase, and like other well-studied catechol 2,3-dioxygenases the C-terminal domain of the *T. primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 gene appears to contain the active site (Appendix Fig. 3A-1).

Regarding the 2-hydroxymuconic semialdehyde hydrolase, both the *T. primitia* 2-hydroxymuconic semialdehyde hydrolases have one Family Abhydrolase 1, α/β hydrolase fold domain (PF00561) spanning 235 residues (32 to 266) of the 274

amino-acid long proteins like other well-studied 2-hydroxymuconic semialdehyde hydrolases (Table 3-1; Appendix Fig. 3A-1) (Aziz *et al.* 2008; Punta *et al.* 2012). In addition, both the *T. primitia* 2-hydroxymuconic semialdehyde hydrolases each have an active site comprised of Ser-105, Asp-226, and His-254 (Appendix Fig. 3A-1) (Aziz *et al.* 2008). These three residues reflect the catalytic triad configuration, typically nucleophile-acid-histidine or Ser-107, Asp-228, and His-256, conserved among other functional α/β hydrolase fold 2-hydroxymuconic semialdehyde hydrolases (Díaz & Timmis 1995; Nandhagopal *et al.* 2001). Further, a “nucleophilic elbow” consensus sequence, Sm-X-Nu-X-Sm-Sm, typically surrounds the Ser-107 nucleophile in α/β hydrolase fold enzymes with Sm representing small amino acids (generally glycine) and X representing any amino acid (Díaz & Timmis 1995). This “nucleophilic elbow” in *Pseudomonas putida*, is Gly-105, Asn-106, Ser-107, Phe-108, Gly-109, and Gly-110 (Díaz & Timmis 1995). Similarly, both the *T. primitia* 2-hydroxymuconic semialdehyde hydrolases have a “nucleophilic elbow” of Gly-103, Asn-104, Ser-105, Phe-106, Gly-107, and Gly-108 (Appendix Fig. 3A-1).

Moreover, a conserved motif among *meta*-cleavage product hydrolases is His-35, Gly-36, X-37, Gly-38, Pro-39, and Gly-40 with X representing a small amino acid and both His-35 and Gly-36 involved in the formation of an oxyanion hole critical to catalytic function (Nandhagopal *et al.* 2001). Indeed both the *T. primitia* 2-hydroxymuconic semialdehyde hydrolases have the motif His-34, Gly-35, Ser-36, Gly-37, Pro-38, and Gly-39 with the catalytic His-34 and Gly-35 residues (Appendix Fig. 3A-1). Other conserved features among *meta*-cleavage product hydrolases are

located in the bottom of the substrate-binding pocket. These are Asn-46, Asn-109, and Gln-266 (Nandhagopal *et al.* 2001). Correspondingly, the *T. primitia* str. ZAS-1 2-hydroxymuconic semialdehyde hydrolase has residues Asn-47, Asn-104, and Gln-262, and the *T. primitia* str. ZAS-2 2-hydroxymuconic semialdehyde hydrolase has residues Asn-45, Asn-104, and Gln-257 (Appendix Fig. 3A-1).

Next, the *T. primitia* str. ZAS-1 2-oxopent-4-enoate hydratase has one Family FAA hydrolase, fumarylacetoacetate hydrolase domain (PF01557) spanning 199 residues (61 to 259) of the 260 amino acid-long protein as reported for other 2-oxopent-4-enoate hydratases (Table 3-1; Appendix Fig. 3A-1) (Aziz *et al.* 2008; Punta *et al.* 2012). The *T. primitia* str. ZAS-2 2-oxopent-4-enoate hydratase has one Family FAA hydrolase, fumarylacetoacetate hydrolase domain (PF01557) spanning 200 residues (60 to 259) of the 260 amino acid-long protein (Table 3-1; Appendix Fig. 3A-1) (Aziz *et al.* 2008; Punta *et al.* 2012). Three conserved residues of these hydratases, Glu-106, Glu-108, and Glu-139, coordinate the metal ion (Izumi *et al.* 2007). Both the *T. primitia* 2-oxopent-4-enoate hydratases have these three conserved residues, represented by Glu-104, Glu-106, and Glu-137 (Appendix Fig. 3A-1) (Aziz *et al.* 2008). Other conserved residues of *meta*-cleavage pathway 2-oxopent-4-enoate hydratases are Lys-61, Leu-64, Asp-79, and Asn-168 that comprise the active site (Izumi *et al.* 2007). In *T. primitia* these conserved active site residues are Lys-60, Leu-63, Asp-78, and Asn-168 in str. ZAS-1 and Asn-157 in str. ZAS-2 (Appendix Fig. 3A-1) (Aziz *et al.* 2008).

The *T. primitia* 4-hydroxy-2-oxopentanoate aldolases each have one HMGL-like family domain (PF00682) spanning 232 residues (19 to 250 in str. ZAS-1 and 14-245 in str. ZAS-2) and one Family DmpG comm., DmpG-like communication domain (PF07836) spanning 66 residues (274-339 in str. ZAS-1 and 269-334 in str. ZAS-2) of the 340 and 335 amino acids-long proteins in *T. primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2, respectively like other researched 4-hydroxy-2-oxopentanoate aldolases (Table 3-1; Appendix Fig. 3A-1) (Aziz *et al.* 2008; Punta *et al.* 2012).

Conserved metal ion ligands of 4-hydroxy-2-oxopentanoate aldolases are Asp-18, His-200, and His-202. Accordingly, *T. primitia* str. ZAS-1's 4-hydroxy-2-oxopentanoate aldolase has conserved metal ion ligands at Asp-20, His-200, and His-202 whereas *T. primitia* str. ZAS-2's 4-hydroxy-2-oxopentanoate aldolase has conserved metal ion ligands at Asp-15, His-195, and His-197 (Appendix Fig. 3A-1) (Aziz *et al.* 2008). These conserved metal ion ligands interact with the conserved active site residues Arg-17, His-21, Gly-52, and Tyr-291 which are represented by Arg-19, His-23, Gly-54, and Tyr-291 in *T. primitia* str. ZAS-1, and Arg-14, His-18, Gly-54, and Tyr-286 in str. ZAS-2 (Appendix Fig. 3A-1) (Aziz *et al.* 2008).

The *T. primitia* acetaldehyde dehydrogenases each have one Family Semialdehyde dh/semialdehyde dehydrogenase, NAD binding domain (PF01118) spanning 110 residues (7-116 in str. ZAS-1 and 5-114 in str. ZAS-2) and one Family Acetdehyd dimmer, prokaryotic acetaldehyde dehydrogenase dimerisation domain (PF09290) spanning 137 residues (126-262 in str. ZAS-1 and 124-260 in str. ZAS-2) of the 291 and 288 amino acid-long proteins in *T. primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2, respectively

consistent with previously reported acetaldehyde dehydrogenases (Table 3-1; Appendix Fig. 3A-1) (Aziz *et al.* 2008; Punta *et al.* 2012). The active site of acetaldehyde dehydrogenases is located between its NAD⁺-binding and dimerization domains and has a conserved residue, Cys-132. Likewise in the *T. primitia* acetaldehyde dehydrogenase this residue is Cys-126 (str. ZAS-1) and Cys-124 (str. ZAS-2) (Appendix Fig. 3A-1).

Pseudomonas putida (M, A, B)*T. primitia* ZAS-2 (M)*T. primitia* ZAS-1 (M)*Novosphingobium aromaticivorans* (M, A, B)*Novosphingobium* sp. (M, A, B)*Methylocella silvestris* (M, A, B)*Sphingobium japonicum* (A, B)*Azoarcus* sp. (A, B)*Thauera* sp. (M, A, B)*Dechloromonas aromatica* (M, A, B)*Azotobacter vinelandii* (A, B)*Methylobium petroleiphilum* (M, A, B)

1'	ferredoxin-like ORF	1	catechol 2,3-dioxygenase	2	2-hydroxymuconic semialdehyde hydrolase
3	2-oxopent-4-enoate hydratase	4	4-hydroxy-2-oxopentanoate aldolase	5	acetaldehyde dehydrogenase
6	2-hydroxymuconic semialdehyde dehydrogenase	7	4-oxalocrotonate tautomerase	8	4-oxalocrotonate decarboxylase
	putative regulatory genes		hypothetical		500 a.a.

Fig. 3-2: Gene neighborhoods representing complete catechol 2,3-dioxygenase-based *meta*-cleavage pathways. In parentheses near the names of organisms with genes representing complete *meta*-cleavage pathways, “M,” “A,” and/or “B,” represents having genes for the main pathway, Shunt A, or Shunt B, respectively. Ferredoxin-like peptide (step 1', red), catechol 2,3-dioxygenase (step 1, orange), 2-hydroxymuconic semialdehyde hydrolase (step 2, light blue), 2-oxopent-4-enoate hydratase (step 3, dark green), 4-hydroxy-2-oxopentanoate aldolase (step 4, dark blue), acetaldehyde dehydrogenase (step 5, purple), 2-hydroxymuconic semialdehyde dehydrogenase (step 6, light green), 4-oxalocrotonate tautomerase (step 7, yellow), 4-oxalocrotonate decarboxylase (step 8, pink), putative regulatory genes (dark grey), and hypothetical proteins (light grey) are depicted. Regulatory families are noted in blue print when known.

The *T. primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 *meta*-cleavage pathway gene neighborhoods are arranged similarly between their respective genomes (Fig. 3-2). In contrast, their arrangement is dissimilar from the order of the *meta*-cleavage pathway enzymatic steps they represent (Fig. 3-1 and 3-2). Relative to catechol 2,3-dioxygenase *meta*-cleavage pathway gene neighborhoods in other organisms possessing this pathway, the *T. primitia* strains' gene arrangement is distinct (Fig. 3-2).

No evidence for “upper” preparatory pathway genes in *Treponema primitia*

Many *meta*-cleavage pathway-containing organisms perform preparatory reactions before proceeding to cleave aromatic substrates, and often have genes for monooxygenases and dioxygenases. These are often found directly upstream, downstream, or among the *meta*-cleavage pathway-encoding gene cluster. Nevertheless, no evidence for preparatory reactions was observed in the genomes of the *Treponema primitia* isolates.

Evolutionary origins of the *Treponema primitia* meta-cleavage pathway

In order to learn more about the evolutionary origins and history of the pathway genes in *Treponema primitia*, a phylogenetic analysis was performed on each by comparing each gene in the pathway to databases of their respective homologs. The results of that analysis suggest that the genes for the pathway likely originate from at least two, if not three sources: an alphaproteobacterium, a member of the clostridiales, and possibly a member of the bacillales (Fig. 3-3, 3-4, and 3-5; Appendix Fig 3A-2, 3A-3, and 3A-4). However, gene transfer events seem to have occurred in the distant past, inasmuch as relatively long branch lengths are observed for each *T. primitia* homolog, with amelioration of the GC and codon usage.

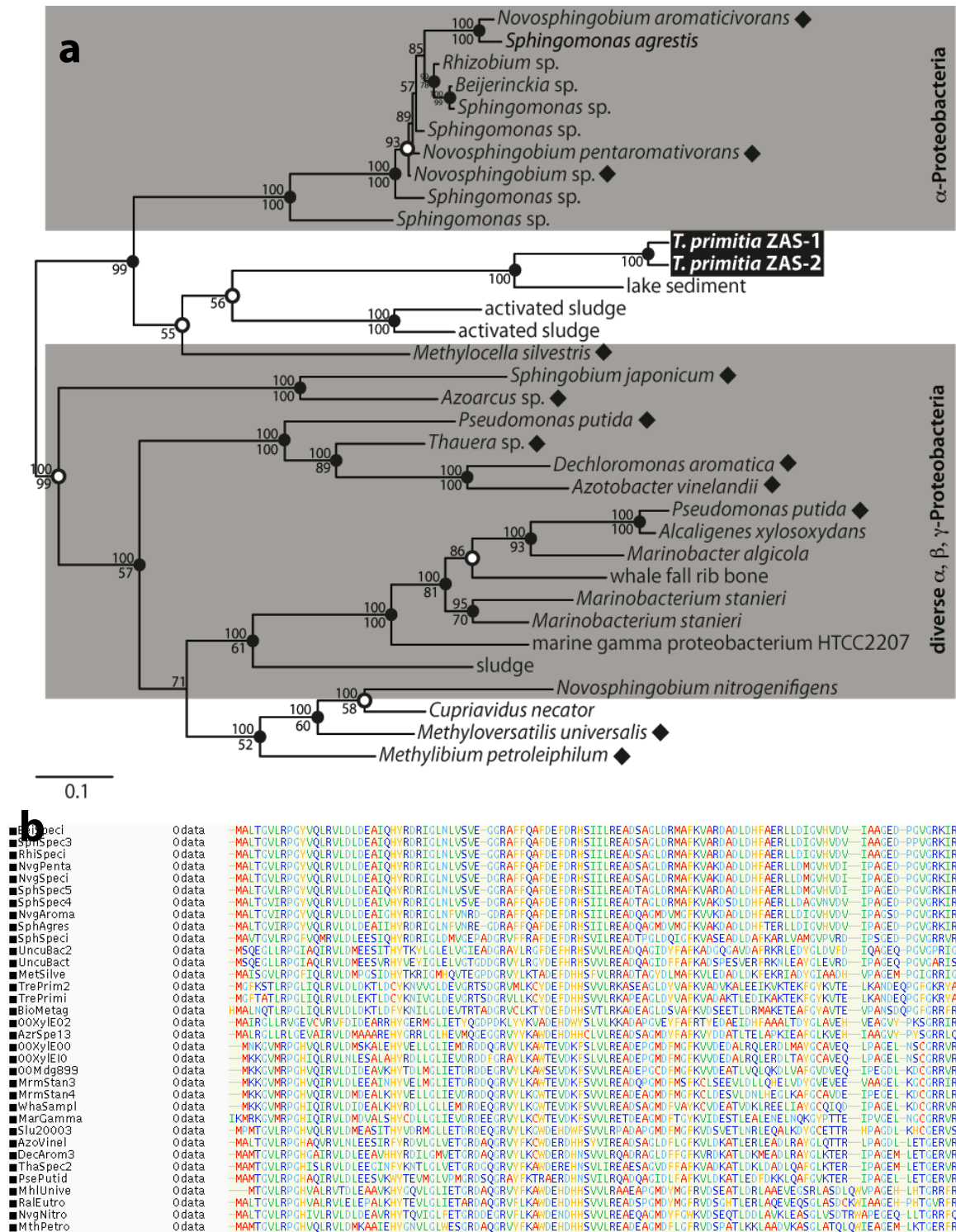


Fig. 3-3: (a) Phylogenetic position of *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 catechol 2,3-dioxygenase (PF00903, step 1). Bayesian protein phylogenetic analysis (90 trees from 36,000 generations; PSRF = 0.999; average standard deviation of split frequencies = 0.008789) is based on 297 unambiguously aligned amino acid

positions of a 308 amino acid-long protein. Bayes values (when greater than 50) are reported above the nodes. Phylip PROTPARS maximum parsimony support after analysis of 1000 bootstraps (when greater than 50%) is reported below nodes. Shaded circles (●) indicate nodes supported by both maximum parsimony and Fitch distance matrix methods. Open circles (○) indicate nodes supported by one of those methods. Diamonds (◆) indicate organisms with genes for a complete catechol 2,3-dioxygenase-based *meta*-cleavage pathway. Scale bar indicates distance depicted as 0.1 amino acid changes per alignment position. Accession numbers are reported in Appendix (Appendix Table 3A-1). **(b)** Example of MUSCLE alignments used to create trees. For each protein or Pfam CLUSTALW, MAFFT, DIALIGN, T-Coffee, and MUSCLE alignments were generated on the Mobyle Server and compared (Néron *et al.* 2009). Consistently, MUSCLE generated the best alignments and therefore sequences were unambiguously aligned using this program. Conservative filters were used to disregard columns of data containing sequence gaps or ambiguous alignments.

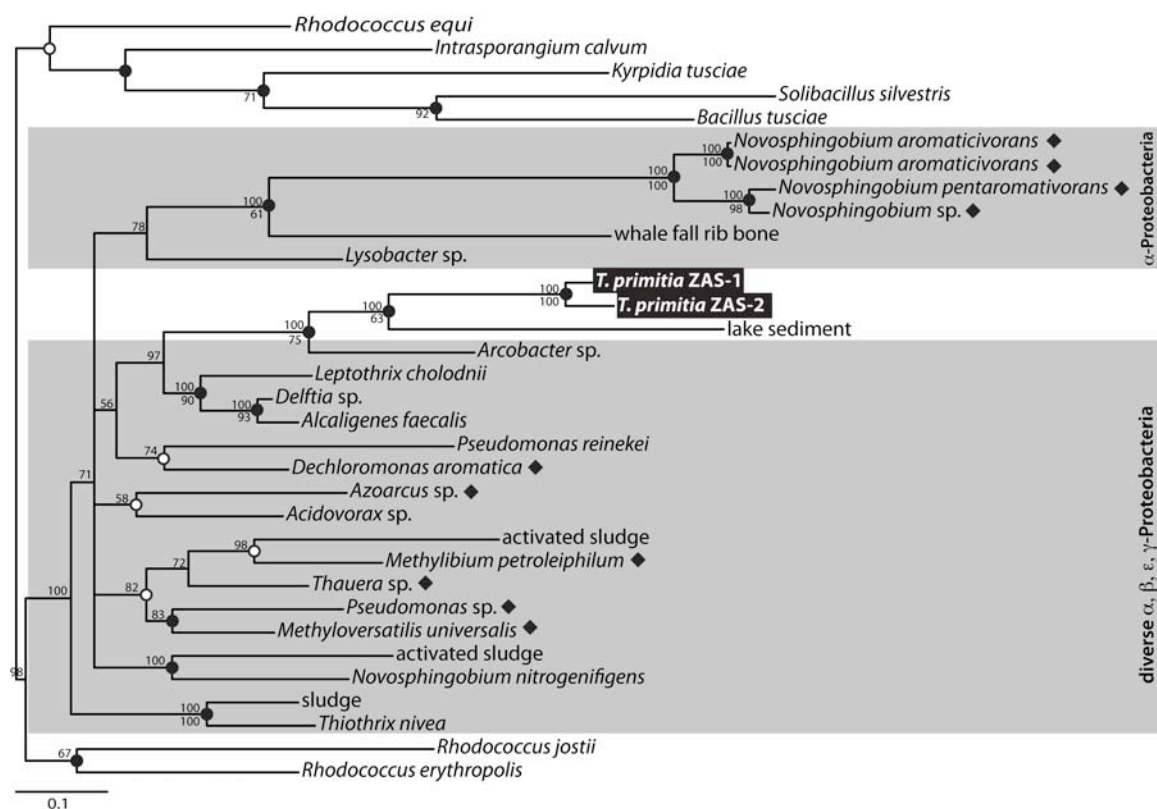


Fig. 3-4: Phylogenetic position of *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 2-hydroxymuconic semialdehyde hydrolase (PF00561, step 2). Bayesian protein phylogenetic analysis (2540 trees from 1,016,000 generations; PSRF = 1.000; average standard deviation of split frequencies = 0.011955) is based on 222 unambiguously aligned amino acid positions of a 274 amino acid-long protein. Bayes values (when greater than 50) are reported above the nodes. Phylip PROTPARS maximum parsimony support after analysis of 1000 bootstraps (when greater than 50%) is reported below nodes. Shaded circles (●) indicate nodes supported by both maximum parsimony and Fitch distance matrix methods. Open circles (○) indicate nodes supported by one of those methods. Diamonds (◆) indicate organisms with genes for a complete catechol 2,3-dioxygenase-based *meta*-cleavage pathway. Scale bar indicates distance depicted as 0.1 amino acid changes per alignment position. Accession numbers are reported in Appendix (Appendix Table 3A-1).

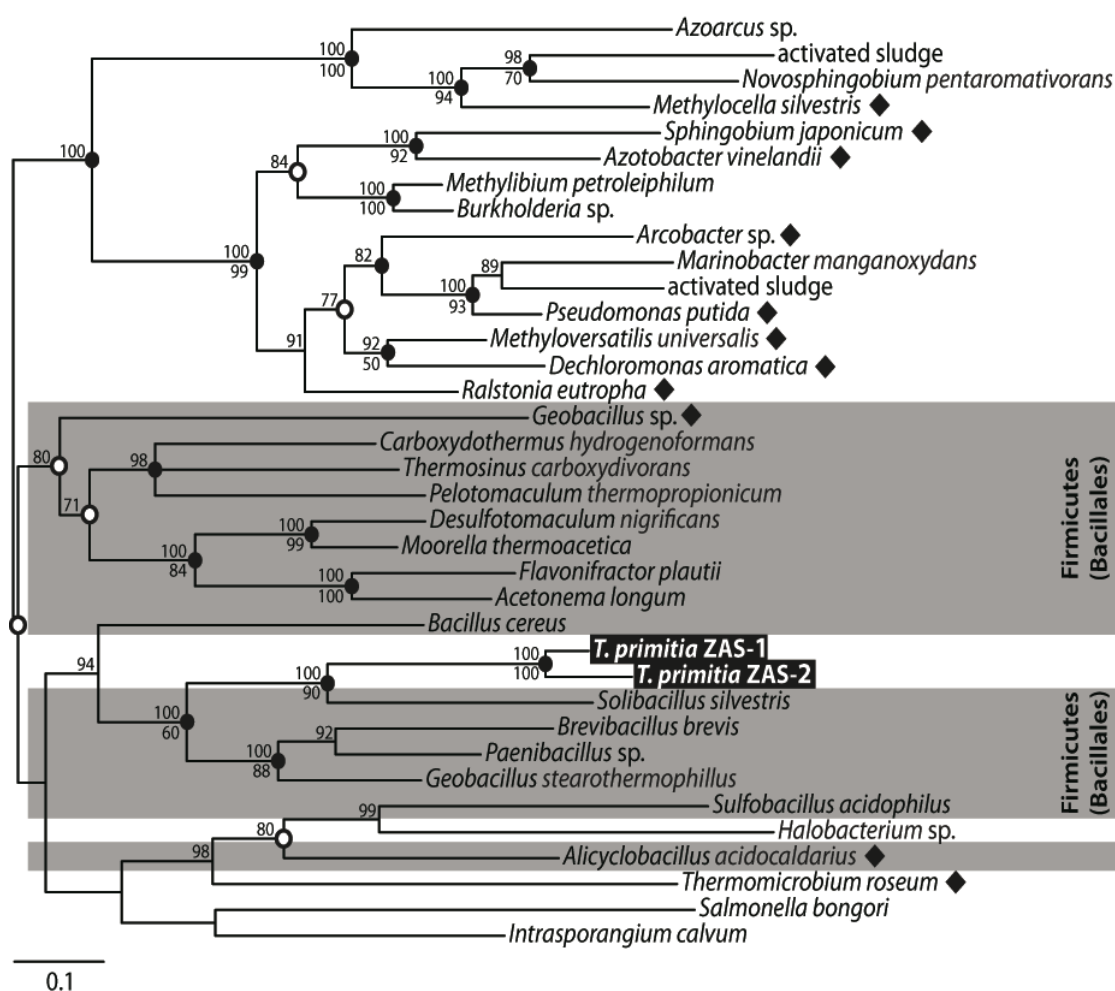


Fig. 3-5: Phylogenetic position of *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 2-oxopent-4-enoate hydratase (PF01557, step 3). Bayesian protein phylogenetic analysis (313 trees from 125,000 generations; PSRF = 1.000; average standard deviation of split frequencies = 0.009239) is based on 243 unambiguously aligned amino acid positions of a 260 amino acid-long protein. Bayes values (when greater than 50) are reported above the nodes. Phylip PROTPARS maximum parsimony support after analysis of 1000 bootstraps (when greater than 50%) is reported below nodes. Shaded circles (●) indicate nodes supported by both maximum parsimony and Fitch distance matrix methods. Open circles (○) indicate nodes supported by one of those methods. Diamonds (◆) indicate organisms with genes for a complete catechol 2,3-dioxygenase-based *meta*-cleavage pathway. Scale bar indicates distance depicted as 0.1 amino acid changes per alignment position. Accession numbers are reported in Appendix (Appendix Table 3A-1).

The catechol 2,3-dioxygenases from the two *T. primitia* strains are each other's closest relative, and demonstrate a strong affiliation with homologs of catechol 2,3-dioxygenases from α -, β -, and γ -proteobacteria, as well as several environmental sequences (Fig. 3-3). Specifically, the majority of the closest-cultured relatives are alphaproteobacteria, specifically "sphingomonads" (Fig. 3-3). Similarly, the short ferredoxin-like peptides from the *T. primitia* strains affiliate phylogenetically with those associated with *meta*-cleavage pathways in diverse proteobacteria (Appendix Fig. 3A-2). The protein that catalyzes the second step in the pathway, 2-hydroxymuconic semialdehyde hydrolase, also supports a proteobacterial origin (Fig. 3-4).

In contrast, the proteins for the remainder of the steps in the pathway, 2-oxopent-4-enoate hydratase, 4-hydroxy-2-oxopentanoate aldolase, and acetaldehyde dehydrogenase, demonstrate strong affiliations with those from firmicutes (Fig. 3-5; Appendix Fig 3A-3 and 3A-4, respectively). The hydratase is related to other hydratases from aerobic species of the bacillales, whereas the aldolase and acetaldehyde dehydrogenase affiliate phylogenetically with homologs that are often found widespread across many anaerobic clostridiales, including many homoacetogens (Fig. 3-5; Appendix Fig. 3A-3 and 3A-4, respectively), none of which encode the enzymes catalyzing the key early steps in the pathway. Extensive phylogenetic analyses on each of the specific Pfam (protein family) domains or modules present within catechol 2,3-dioxygenase, 4-hydroxy-2-oxopentanoate aldolase, and acetaldehyde dehydrogenase yielded results consistent with all of the

above conclusions (Appendix Fig. 3A-5, 3A-6, 3A-7, 3A-8, 3A-9, 3A-10, 3A-11, 3A-12, 3A-13, and 3A-14).

Selection pressure and expression analyses

None of the pathway related ORFs in the *Treponema primitia* strains appear to be pseudogenes, and all appear to encode functional enzymes. In order to examine how important these genes may be over more recent evolutionary time, selection pressure analyses were performed to test the hypothesis that these genes might demonstrate signs of positive selection. All of the pathway genes with the exception of 2-hydroxymuconic semialdehyde hydrolase appear to be under positive selection, as their determined Z values were significantly less than zero (i.e. the numbers of synonymous changes (dS) in each were significantly greater than the number of nonsynonymous changes (dN)) (Table 3-2). Curiously, the 2-hydroxymuconic semialdehyde hydrolase genes from the two spirochetes each appear to be under negative selection pressure (Table 3-2).

Table 3-2: Selection pressure analysis of *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 *meta*-cleavage pathway genes

Gene	Method	Z	P-value	Selection Pressure
ferredoxin-like peptide	NG86	-2.932	1	+
	Modified NG86	-0.34	1	+
	LWL85	-4.003	1	+
	PBL85	-3.882	1	+
	Kumar	-3.273	1	+
catechol 2,3-dioxygenase	NG86	-14.09	1	+
	Modified NG86	-11.326	1	+
	LWL85	-18.94	1	+
	PBL85	-20.956	1	+
	Kumar	-17.675	1	+
2-hydroxymuconic semialdehyde hydrolase	NG86	4.594	0	-
	Modified NG86	7.219	0	-
	LWL85	4.304	0	-
	PBL85	5.136	0	-
	Kumar	6.827	0	-
2-oxopent-4-enoate hydratase	NG86	-8.802	1	+
	Modified NG86	-5.276	1	+
	LWL85	-10.717	1	+
	PBL85	-8.89	1	+
	Kumar	-7.787	1	+
4-hydroxy-2-oxopentanoate aldolase	NG86	-8.732	1	+
	Modified NG86	-5.237	1	+
	LWL85	-10.717	1	+
	PBL85	-9.003	1	+
	Kumar	-8.073	1	+
acetaldehyde dehydrogenase	NG86	-1.795	1	+
	Modified NG86	NA	NA	+
	LWL85	-2.282	1	+
	PBL85	-1.466	1	+
	Kumar	-0.282	1	+

In a re-analysis of data from a published transcriptomics study (Rosenthal *et al.* 2011), the expression of genes in the pathway were evaluated for *T. primitia* str. ZAS-2 grown under anaerobic, homacetogenic growth conditions as a pure-culture or as co-culture with *T. azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9 (Appendix Table 3A-3). Although both pure- and co-cultures of *T. primitia* str. ZAS-2 had been grown in an anoxic, DTT-reduced medium without added aromatic substrates or O₂, all of the *meta*-

cleavage pathway genes were observed as being expressed (Appendix Table 3A-2 and Table 3A-3). Catechol 2,3-dioxygenase expression was at a higher level than the other *meta*-cleavage pathway genes, and at a level comparable to that of a key gene in this species' anaerobic metabolism - formate dehydrogenase (Appendix Table 3A-2 and Table 3A-3). Comparisons of expression levels of the genes in the pathway with other reference genes are presented in the supplementary materials (Appendix Table 3A-2 and Table 3A-3).

Regulation

Expression of the *meta*-cleavage pathway genes appears to be regulated by a GntR family transcription regulator upstream of the 2-hydroxymuconic semialdehyde hydrolase – and thus all genes representing the *meta*-cleavage pathway – in both *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 (Appendix Fig. 3A-15). The GntR family of transcriptional regulators includes more than 1,000 members and is distributed among diverse bacterial groups and biological processes (Rigali *et al.* 2002; Hillerich & Westpheling 2006). This family was named after the repressor of the gluconate operon in *Bacillus subtilis* (Haydon & Guest 1991). GntR family members are known to also regulate the degradation of aromatic compounds, functioning as transcriptional repressors in the absence of pathway substrates such as aromatics (Tropel & van der Meer 2004). Other regulatory families involved in aromatic degradation pathways include LysR, IclR, AraC, Xyl, TetR, and XylRS, and are found near catechol 2,3-dioxygenase-based *meta*-cleavage pathway neighborhoods in other organisms examined here (Tropel & van der Meer 2004). Preliminary phylogenetic analyses suggest the *T. primitia* GntRs' closest cultured relative is a

member of the Phylum *Spirochaetes* (Appendix Fig. 3A-16 and Fig. 3A-17). Other close cultured relatives are representatives of the Phylum *Firmicutes* (Appendix Fig. 3A-16 and Fig. 3A-17).

In addition to a GntR family transcriptional regulator, two promoter regions might be located within the *T. primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 gene neighborhoods upstream of the GntR and before the acetaldehyde dehydrogenase in each (Appendix Fig. 3A-15). Also, although selenocysteine insertion sequence (SECIS) elements - that recode in-frame UGA codons which normally function as stop signals to serve as selenocysteine codons - are found in *T. primitia* formate dehydrogenases (FDH), none were found in the *T. primitia* *meta*-cleavage pathway genes or gene neighborhoods (Zhang *et al.* 2011).

Metabolism of catechol under microoxic conditions

Neither of the genomes of the *Treponema primitia* strains have any obvious genes for oxygen respiration, for cytochrome-associated proteins or metabolism, or for electron transport phosphorylation. Therefore, any function of the *meta*-cleavage pathway genes in *T. primitia* must be very different from all of the canonical aerobes that typically encode these pathways and which mineralize the ring carbon to CO₂ during oxidative phosphorylation. However, an earlier study by Graber and Breznak documented that *T. primitia* cultures have a number of enzyme activities relevant to O₂ detoxification, and that this species can consume low amounts of O₂ (2004). In cultures spiked with air, growth ceased until the oxygen had been fully consumed, whereupon growth re-initiated (Graber & Breznak 2004). Those results

raise the possibility that aromatic metabolism might be used by the spirochete as an accessory mechanism to consume low amounts of oxygen, and possibly to generate intermediates that can feed into its (or the surrounding microbial community's) oxygen independent energy metabolism. Here, culture conditions were modified allowing the observation of good growth and successive serial transfer of *T. primitia* str. ZAS-1 cultures in an unreduced medium under a 0.5% O₂ vol/vol headspace. Such media was competent for culturing this strain if the cultures were incubated statically. Other than occasionally exhibiting longer initial lag phases, growth progressed at the same rates and yields as those observed in reduced, anoxic media (Fig. 3-6).

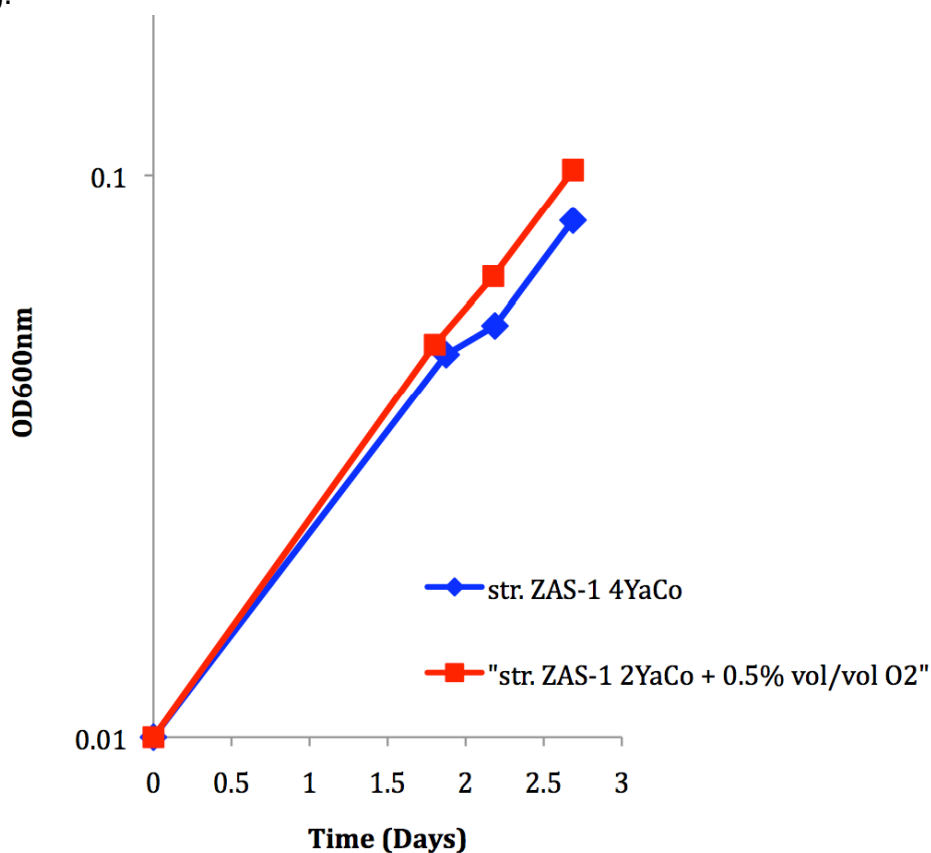
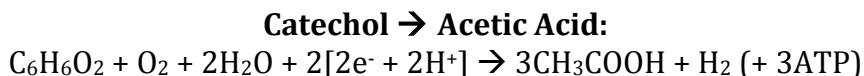
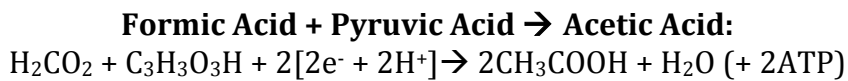
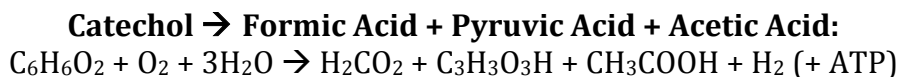
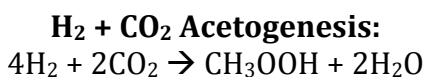


Fig. 3-6: Microoxic growth of *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-1. *T. primitia* str. ZAS-1 grew in 5mL of 2YACo, DTT-free media, with an 80% N₂/20% CO₂ headspace to

which air was added sterilely to achieve 0.5% vol/vol O₂ (red) and 5mL of 4YACo, DTT-reduced media with an 80% H₂/20% CO₂ headspace (blue). Both treatment types were supplemented with a vitamin mixture (12-vitamin, vitamin B12, and folic acid solutions, Graber & Breznak, 2004). Cultures were contained in 25mL butyl rubber-stoppered Balch tubes and incubated at 25°C horizontally and still. First three days of growth are shown.

Stoichiometric predictions of catechol conversion to acetate via this *meta*-cleavage pathway suggest an increase in acetate yield than what is obtained from H₂ + CO₂ acetogenesis:

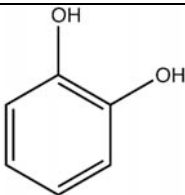
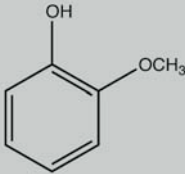


Therefore, potential increases in growth yields of cultures to which catechol-like aromatics and O₂ were added were evaluated as a proxy for acetate production via this *meta*-cleavage pathway. When *T. primitia* str. ZAS-1 cultures were transferred into this microoxic medium amended with catechol to a final concentration of 0.5mM, no significant stimulations of growth or organic acid yields were observed, and the majority of the substrate went unreacted over time. However, the culture fluids transiently turned a distinct lemon-yellow color after several days of growth, having reached an OD_{600nm} between 0.2 and 0.3 (Table 3-3; Appendix Fig. 3A-18 and Fig. 3A-19). Analysis of culture fluids to which 0.5mM aromatic substrate and 0.5%

vol/vol O₂ were added revealed that the catechol-dependent yellow material had an absorbance maximum at 375nm (Table 3-3; Appendix Fig. 3A-19), consistent with the presence of the expected dioxygenase-mediated ring cleavage product, 2-hydroxymuconic semialdehyde. This peak was not seen in cultures to which only 0.5mM aromatic substrate or only 0.5% vol/vol O₂ was added (Appendix Fig. 3A-19). Cultures transferred into media containing 0.5mM guaiacol also generated this same yellow intermediate (Table 3-3). Thus, the dioxygenase in this spirochete appears to be functional on catechol and guaiacol. No generation of obvious intermediates was observed when any of the following compounds were tested: veratrole, protocatechualdehyde, protocatechuic acid, vanillic acid, gallic acid, homoprotocatechuic acid, homoveratric acid, hydrocaffeic acid, caffeic acid, or ferulic acid.

As a back-of-the-envelope calculation, that 0.5mM catechol added to the cultures examined by UV/Vis means that there were 275μmoles of catechol in each 5mL culture. Therefore, if catechol generates the ring cleavage product, 2-hydroxymuconic semialdehyde, in a ratio of 1:1 according to the stoichiometry above, then one would expect all of this catechol to be converted to 275μmoles of ring cleavage product. Nevertheless, approximately 22μmoles of the ring cleavage product were formed ($\epsilon = 36,000 \text{ L mol}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$ and culture sample diluted 1:100 for UV/Vis spec readings) indicating roughly 10% of the original catechol input to the cultures was transformed into the ring cleavage product (Appendix Fig. 3A-19).

Table 3-3: Monoaromatic compound cleavage by *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-1

Monoaromatic Compound	Abs. Max (nm)	Ring Cleavage Product	Abs. Max (nm)	Ring Cleavage
 catechol (1,2-dihydroxybenzene)	275		375	+
 guaiacol (2-methoxyphenol)	275		375	+

Growth on veratrole, protocatechualdehyde, protocatechuic acid, vanillic acid, gallic acid, homoprotocatechuic acid, homoveratric acid, hydrocaffeic acid, caffeic acid, and ferulic acid was tested, but no evidence of ring cleavage was detected.

As an alternative to growing *T. primitia* in a liquid media under a defined microoxic headspace, cultures were also initiated in tubes containing an agarose-solidified media under a microoxic headspace in order to establish oxygen gradient cultures. Under these conditions it became clear that both strains of *T. primitia* influence the extent of the inward diffusion of oxygen into the media, with or without an aromatic substrate present. Moreover, the distribution of the growth in the anaerobic portions of the agar was not uniform. Rather, cells accumulated upwards towards the oxic anoxic interface as visualized by the transition of the redox indicator dye resazurin from pink in color to clear. Because the balance of the microoxic headspace was N₂/CO₂, the results suggest that the presence of oxygen stimulates the yield of electron donors present in the media (yeast autolysate and, when present, utilizable aromatic substrates). In several cases, the addition of certain aromatic substrates (catechol, protocatechuic acid, hydrocaffeic acid, and caffeic acid) further stimulated the ability of *T. primitia* to impact the degree of oxygen

penetration into the agar, suggesting that these compounds are being metabolized in oxygen sink reactions (Table 3-4). The impact of the presence or absence of aromatics and/or viable cells on oxygen penetration is summarized in Table 3-4 and Fig. 3-7 as well as Appendix Fig. 3A-20a and b and 3A-21a and b. These analyses provide additional support that *T. primitia* str. ZAS-1 is perhaps the better candidate of the two strains for future studies on oxygen and aromatic metabolisms in this “anaerobic” species (Appendix Fig. 3A-20a and b).

Table 3-4: Average depth of O₂ penetration in *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 O₂/aromatic gradient cultures

Aromatic Substrate	Depth (mm)	
	str. ZAS-1	str. ZAS-2
	Ave. +/- Std. Error	Ave. +/- Std. Error
catechol	5 +/- 1 ^{ab}	20 +/- 1
protocatechuic acid	6 +/- 3 ^{ab}	24 +/- 1
hydrocaffeic acid	6 +/- 1 ^{ab}	13 +/- 1 ^a
caffeic Acid	7 +/- 2 ^b	18 +/- 1
H ₂ O	9 +/- 2 ^b	19 +/- 1

^aSignificantly different from corresponding H₂O control as determined by Student's t-test p-value calculations at 95% confidence.

^bSignificantly different from corresponding *T. primitia* str. ZAS-2 cultures as determined by Student's t-test p-value calculations at 95% confidence.

After 7 days of incubation, distance of O₂ penetration into semi-solid agar culture media determined by resazurin front.

Data is average of triplicate cultures. For comparison, O₂ reached the bottom of cell-free control tubes (22mm) by day 3 (Fig. 3-6a).

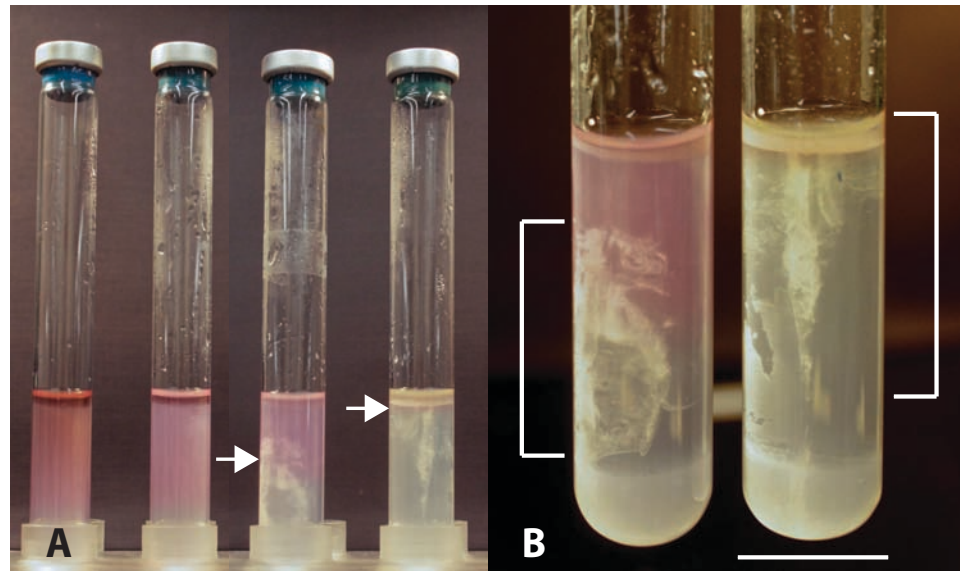


Fig. 3-7: *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-1 O₂/catechol gradient cultures and controls. Oxygen gradient tubes under a headspace of N₂/CO₂/O₂ (70:10:4) after 7 days of incubation. (a) From left to right: uninoculated O₂ and catechol control; uninoculated O₂-only control; inoculated O₂-only control; and inoculated O₂ and catechol. (b) Left: closer view of inoculated O₂-only control; Right: closer view of inoculated O₂ and catechol. Arrows indicate the redox transition zone as represented by resazurin decolorization. Brackets highlight accumulations of cell density. Media and cultivation conditions are detailed in the Materials and Methods. Bar = 15mm.

With a catechol gradient only and no O₂ available, *T. primitia* str. ZAS-1 cultures do not display robust growth. Rather, they appear like their uninoculated control (Appendix Fig. 3A-21a).

DISCUSSION:

***Treponema primitia* strains ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 have genes representing complete catechol 2,3-dioxygenase *meta*-cleavage pathways**

That reciprocal BLAST analyses conducted between genomes from three “lower” termite hindgut isolates, *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2, and *T.*

azotonutricium str. ZAS-9 (Leadbetter *et al.* 1999; Graber & Breznak 2004; Graber *et al.* 2004; Rosenthal *et al.* 2011; Ballor *et al.* 2012), and the P3 hindgut region

metagenome from the “higher” termite, *Nasutitermes* sp. (Warnecke *et al.* 2007) revealed a putative “catechol 2,3-dioxygenase” gene in each of the *T. primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 genomes, but not in the *T. azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9 genome nor higher termite metagenome, was unexpected but helps reconcile O₂ in the termite hindgut, strategies of “anaerobic” organisms to deal with O₂-related stress, and O₂-requiring metabolisms related to lignocellulose degradation.

It should also be noted that the “higher” termite metagenome coverage was less than 1X the entire hindgut population (Warnecke *et al.* 2007). Likely coverage was more than 1X for the most abundant species but less than 1X for lower abundance members. Because the termite gut has a constantly changing composition of members as well as community members in relatively low abundance, it was difficult to make sure a reliable “coverage” is obtained since an “*a-priori*” knowledge of what is in the gut – when this genome was generated - was not available. Nevertheless, current technology could acquire a larger dataset, and with this “higher” termite metagenomic dataset as a reference, another similar project to obtain more coverage could be conducted.

Genomic hints of *meta*-pathway substrate preference

Key residues of the *T. primitia meta*-cleavage pathway genes provide hints about their functions (Díaz & Timmis 1995; Kita *et al.* 1999; Nardini & Dijkstra 1999; Holmquist 2000; Nandhagopal *et al.* 2001; Rea *et al.* 2005; Izumi *et al.* 2007; Lei *et al.* 2008). For example, in *Pseudomonas putida* str. mt-2, catechol and O₂ are thought to enter the active site through a channel comprised mainly of large

residues: His-153, His-199, Tyr-255, and Phe-302. These relatively bulky residues make the channel is narrower than that of other dioxygenases, consistent with the fact that catechol is a relatively small aromatic substrate (Kita *et al.* 1999).

Similarly, these bulky residues are represented in the *T. primitia* catechol 2,3-dioxygenases (His-154, His-200, Tyr-256, Phe-303) suggesting these enzymes also prefer smaller substrates such as catechol.

Moreover, the fact that *T. primitia* has genes representing one, but not the other, *meta*-pathway routes has bearing on understanding the aromatic substrates for the pathway. Past studies have indicated that the 2-hydroxymuconic semialdehyde hydrolase (step 2), for instance, prefers ketone group-containing ring cleavage products, in comparison to the 2-hydroxymuconic semialdehyde dehydrogenase (step 6) that is active only on aldehyde group-containing ring cleavage products (Fig. 3-1) (Khajamohiddin *et al.* 2006). This suggests that *T. primitia* catechol 2,3-dioxygenases prefer substrates with *meta*-cleavage products that contain ketone groups.

The *T. primitia* *meta*-cleavage pathway gene neighborhood arrangement is distinct from other organisms possessing this pathway, which is also unique as there are only a few conserved gene neighborhood arrangements among the *meta*-cleavage pathway containing organisms (Fig. 3-2) (Suenaga *et al.* 2009).

No evidence for “upper” preparatory pathway genes in *Treponema primitia*

In addition to the unique arrangement of *meta*-pathway genes, there is no evidence of genes representing “upper” preparatory pathways in *Treponema primitia*,

commonly found in other organisms possessing *meta*-pathway homologs (Suenaga *et al.* 2009). This suggests that only a limited number of candidate aromatic substrates might serve as possible substrates. Alternatively, given that *T. primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 naturally are part of a complex microbial ecosystem, perhaps another community member has “upper” pathway capabilities and provides “lower” pathway substrates to *T. primitia*. One way to test whether or not other organisms provide “upper” pathway products to *T. primitia* to fuel their “lower” pathway metabolism, would be to feed *T. primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 cell-free culture fluid from an organism known to perform the “upper” pathway in lieu of aromatic-like substrates and filter-sterilized termite hindgut fluid (which would require a lot of termites) and/or cell-free enrichment culture fluid that was prepared to select for organisms with “upper” pathway capabilities. *Azotobacter vinelandii*, *Novosphingobium aromaticivorans*, *Novosphingobium* sp., *Methylocella silvestris*, *Sphingobium japonicum*, *Azoarcus* sp., *Pseudomonas putida*, *Thauera* sp., *Dechloromonas aromatica*, and *Methylobium petroleiphilum* are known to perform “upper” pathways. Distinct *meta*-cleavage products could be detected, for example, colorimetrically and with UV/Vis.

Evolutionary origins of the *Treponema primitia meta*-cleavage pathway

Interestingly, in light of the fact that the majority of the closest-cultured relatives phylogenetically associating with the *Treponema primitia* catechol 2,3-dioxygenases are “Sphingomonad” alphaproteobacteria, examination of gene neighborhoods and genomes in the databases reveals that catechol 2,3-dioxygenases and other key pathway genes in these “sphingomonads” are typically found on plasmids and other

mobile genetic elements, and this is possibly how catechol 2,3-dioxygenase was acquired by *T. primitia* (Harayama & Rekik 1990; Stillwell *et al.* 1995) (Fig. 3-3). Because phylogenetic analyses suggest that the genes for the pathway likely originate from at least two, if not three sources - an alphaproteobacterium, a member of the clostridiales, and possibly a member of the bacillales - it is plausible that a pathway found in many anaerobes, but that does not involve the O₂-dependent utilization of aromatic compounds, was augmented with genes acquired by lateral transfer.

Moreover, analyses of the gene and genome databases indicate that evidence for *meta*-cleavage pathways has previously been restricted to species representing three bacterial phyla: *Proteobacteria*, *Firmicutes*, and *Actinobacteria*. Thus, the current results extend the distribution of the genes for this pathway to a fourth phylum, the *Spirochetes*. The available data suggests *meta*-cleavage pathways are absent in all other spirochetes that have been studied.

Selection pressure and expression analyses

That none of the pathway related ORFs in the *Treponema primitia* strains appear to be pseudogenes, and all appear to encode functional enzymes, and all of the pathway genes with the exception of 2-hydroxymuconic semialdehyde hydrolase appear to be under positive selection, suggests that the majority of the *meta*-cleavage pathway have been used over time and have provided benefit to *T. primitia* (Table 3-2).

Further, that all of the *meta*-pathway genes are expressed even after cultivation without O₂ or aromatic substrate since they were isolated over a decade ago suggests the *meta*-pathway genes are constitutively expressed (Appendix Table 3A-2 and Table 3A-3). Nevertheless, perhaps trace levels of O₂ are in the media, O₂ is a metabolic by-product generated in the media, and aromatic compounds are available in the undefined yeast autolysate leading to the *meta*-pathway genes being expressed. If this were the case, however, the distinct ring cleavage yellow may have been seen which has not been observed before this experiment.

Metabolism of catechol under microoxic conditions

It is concluded that both aromatic substrate and oxygen are needed to be added to cultures to observe ring cleavage products. This is not a phenomenon observed in cultures to which aromatic substrate is added alone (Appendix Fig. 3A-19). Further, the ring cleavage product peak at 375nm is only observed when both 0.5mM aromatic substrate and 0.5% vol/vol O₂ is added to cultures. This peak was not seen in cultures to which either 0.5mM aromatic substrate or 0.5% vol/vol O₂ was added (Appendix Fig. 3A-19).

In liquid culture of *T. primitia* str. ZAS-1 with catechol, the fact that the *meta*-cleavage first product was detected colorimetrically and with UV/Vis but was transient suggests that the intermediate is being metabolized further by the other *meta*-cleavage pathway enzymes. The accumulation of the expected final products was not measured as they would be at the limit of detection, taking into account the small amounts of the substrate metabolized.

With a catechol gradient only and no O₂ available, *T. primitia* str. ZAS-1 cultures do not display robust growth. Rather, they appear like their unoculated control (Appendix Fig. 3A-21a). This could be because these aromatic compounds are inhibitory to *T. primitia* or that in this media that lacks a carbon source other than the aromatic substrate (except what may be minimally provided in the 2YACo) *T. primitia* starves because it cannot metabolize the aromatic substrate. However, when water is provided as a control substrate and no O₂ is available growth (albeit small) is still seen (Appendix Fig. 3A-21b). Therefore it is likely these aromatic compounds are inhibitory and perhaps especially so when cells are starved to some degree.

This trend could mean that in cultures with both aromatic and O₂ gradients in which less O₂ penetration is seen (Table 3-4, Fig. 3-7) that cells are preferentially growing towards the headspace to move away from the aromatic. Decreasing the concentration of aromatic in the gradient tube and generating aromatic gradient only cultures with robust growth throughout could establish an aromatic concentration regime to re-investigate these O₂ and aromatic gradient tubes.

Perhaps, however, with O₂ available, *T. primitia* can cleave the inhibitory aromatic substrates and generate presumably less toxic ring cleavage products. This could be why growth is seen in aromatic gradient tubes to which O₂ is added. Other work in this study verifies catechol ring cleavage by *T. primitia* str. ZAS-1, and this ability could be a strategy to detoxify the hindgut environment of lignocellulose-derived aromatic monomers (Brune *et al.* 1995a).

Conclusions

The genomes of two strains of the “anaerobic” spirochete *T. primitia* both contain all genes for a complete and possibly functional catechol 2,3-dioxygenase *meta*-cleavage pathway. Moreover, *T. primitia* str. ZAS-1 performs at least the first enzymatic step of the *meta*-pathway *in vitro*, utilizing O₂ to cleave the ring of catechol to the expected degradation intermediate. The diet of wood-feeding termites is rich in aromatics, albeit in a form that is recalcitrant to degradation (the aromatic polymer lignin). These results suggest that any monomeric aromatics possibly liberated by insect and microbial metabolism in the gut might become substrates in non-canonical oxygen co-utilizing reactions. Indeed, many past studies have focused on aromatic degradation activities and culture strategies under strictly aerobic or anaerobic conditions (Brune 1998b; Lovely 2000; Gibson & Harwood 2002; Fuchs *et al.* 2011), conditions that might have overlooked the activities of oxygen dependent reactions that do not result in the respiratory mineralization of the ring carbon. In the future, it will likely be important to re-examine any potential for aromatic metabolism in termite hindgut communities with this in mind.

Future work

Although we do not see an improvement of growth by the *Treponema primitia* strains cultured with aromatic and O₂, this does not necessarily indicate that they are not generating acetate with these two substrates via the *meta*-cleavage pathway. Rather, it can be concluded that any potential acetate production is not resulting in an increase in growth rates or yield (Graber & Breznak 2004; Graber *et al.* 2004).

Therefore, in the future other techniques could be pursued to evaluate *meta*-cleavage pathway capabilities by *T. primitia*.

Analytical Methods

If appropriate and sensitive protocols can be established, a combination of gas chromatography, liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry, and ion chromatography could be employed to evaluate different aspects of putative *meta*-cleavage pathway functionality in *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-1. First, gas chromatography could be used to measure O₂ draw down by *T. primitia* str. ZAS-1 cultures, indicative of the first step of the *meta*-pathway performed by catechol 2,3-dioxygenase, to which both an aromatic substrate and O₂ have been added. Moreover, liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry could potentially detect substrates, intermediates, and products along the *meta*-cleavage pathway route. To evaluate the formation of the *meta*-cleavage pathway end product, acetate, ion chromatography could be utilized. Tracing radio-labeled methyl groups into possible acetate generated by the strain is another more-direct method.

Revise media design

Similarly, while the concentrations of aromatic substrates and O₂ added to cultures thus far do not appear to be inhibitory to growth, they could still be inhibitory to enzyme function seeing as not all aromatic added to the cultures is utilized in this set-up (and the draw down of O₂ in culture headspace is unknown). Therefore, a decrease in aromatic and O₂ substrates would be a good way to start amending media design.

Feeding experiments and co-culturing

One way to test if the *Treponema* strains are generating acetate which is used by other organisms would be to prepare “feeding” experiments and look for marked increases in growth rate and yield of the “fed” organism. For instance, instead of acetate as a substrate, cell-free *Treponema* culture fluid could be provided to other cultures – organisms known to metabolize acetate and/or other organisms isolated from the termite hindgut environment. Co-cultures between the *Treponema* strains and these organisms could also be informative if successful (Rosenthal *et al.* 2011).

Molecular techniques

Under these, and normal culture conditions, qRT-PCR of relevant genes (Appendix Methods 3A-1) and cloning/expression/ enzyme activity assay work could also measure activity, expression, or lack thereof of these relevant *meta*-cleavage pathway genes. Genome-wide transcriptomics could lead to a better understand of the *Treponema primitia* strains’ relationship with O₂.

Visualization

A *Zootermopsis nevadensis* worker termite hindgut was successfully sectioned. Protozoa were prominent, including *Streblomastix strix* is an oxymonad symbiont of the termite *Zootermopsis angusticoli* (Appendix Fig. 3A-22b) (Leander & Keeling 2004). While artifacts can be induced during the fixation, dehydration, and embedding protocols, HCR-FISH to map mRNA expression could co-localize the *Treponema* 16S rRNA gene with relevant *meta*-cleavage pathway genes. Due to peristaltic movement of the gut, members of the gut microbial community are likely

constantly being disoriented and re-establishing themselves in preferential locations. While a single time-point section may not capture *T. primitia*'s ideal location, co-localizing 16S rRNA gene with relevant *meta*-cleavage pathway genes *in situ* could provide useful information.

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CHAPTER 3: APPENDIX

Table 3A-1: GenBank accession numbers and references of organisms and proteins presented in text and figures.

Table 3A-2: Gene expression patterns of *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-2 in mono-culture or co-culture with *T. azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9.

Table 3A-3: Expression of *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-2 genes.

Table 3A-4: Genes unique to *Treponema* genomes relative to metagenome of *Nasutitermes* sp. P3 hindgut region.

Fig. 3A-1: PFAM domains and conserved functional residues and sequence motifs in *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 meta-cleavage pathway proteins.

Fig. 3A-2: Phylogenetic position of *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 ferredoxin-like peptide (PF00111, Step 1').

Fig. 3A-3: Phylogenetic position of *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 4-hydroxy-2-oxopentanoate aldolase (PF00682 and PF07836, Step 4).

Fig. 3A-4: Phylogenetic position of *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 acetaldehyde dehydrogenase (PF01118 and PF09290, Step 5).

Fig. 3A-5: Phylogenetic position of *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 N-terminal Domain (PF00903).

Fig. 3A-6: Phylogenetic position of *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 N-terminal Domain (PF00903) with extra-domain region.

Fig. 3A-7: Phylogenetic position of *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 N-terminal Domain (PF00903) with intra-domain region.

Fig. 3A-8: Phylogenetic position of *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 C-terminal Domain (PF00903).

Fig. 3A-9: Phylogenetic position of *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 C-terminal Domain (PF00903) with extra-domain region.

Fig. 3A-10: Phylogenetic position of *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 C-terminal Domain (PF00903) with intra-domain region.

Fig. 3A-11: Phylogenetic position of *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 4-hydroxy-2-oxopentanoate aldolase HMGL-like domain (PF00682).

Fig. 3A-12: Phylogenetic position of *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 4-hydroxy-2-oxopentanoate aldolase DmpG-like communication domain (PF07836).

Fig. 3A-13: Phylogenetic position of *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 acetaldehyde dehydrogenase, NAD binding domain (PF01118).

Fig. 3A-14: Phylogenetic position of *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 acetaldehyde dehydrogenase dimerisation domain (PF09290).

Fig. 3A-15: Transcriptional regulatory elements within the *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 *meta*-cleavage pathway gene neighborhoods.

Fig 3A-16: Phylogenetic position of *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 *meta*-pathway associated GntR family transcriptional regulator (PF00392).

Fig. 3A-17: Phylogenetic position of *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 *meta*-pathway associated GntR family transcriptional regulator, Bacterial regulatory proteins gntR family domain (PF00392).

Fig. 3A-18: Yellow *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-1 cultures.

Fig. 3A-19: Absorbance spectra of *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-1 cultures.

Fig. 3A-20: *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 O₂/catechol gradient cultures and controls. **(a)** uninoculated catechol and O₂ control and triplicates of O₂/catechol gradient tubes inoculated with of *T. primitia* str. ZAS-2 **(b)** O₂/catechol gradient tubes inoculated with of *T. primitia* str. ZAS-2 compared to *T. primitia* str. ZAS-1.

Fig. 3A-21: *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-1 **(a)** catechol gradient cultures and controls and **(b)** water gradient cultures and controls.

Method 3A-1: Visualizing *Treponema primitia* in termite hindgut.

Method 3A-2: qRT-PCR of each *meta*-cleavage pathway gene.

Table 3A-1: GenBank accession numbers and references of organisms and proteins presented in text and figures

Figure	Organisms Name	Organism Accession	
		Number	Reference(s)
			Keil <i>et al.</i> 1985; Keil <i>et al.</i> 1987a; Keil <i>et al.</i> 1987b; Osborne <i>et al.</i> 1988; Assinder <i>et al.</i> 1992; Assinder <i>et al.</i> 1993; Gallegos <i>et al.</i> 1997; Sentchilo <i>et al.</i> 2000; Tsuda and Genka 2001; Yano <i>et al.</i> 2007;
Fig. 3-2	<i>Pseudomonas putida</i>	AB238971	Miyakoshi <i>et al.</i> 2012
Fig. 3-2	<i>Treponema primitia</i> str. ZAS-2	CP001843	Rosenthal <i>et al.</i> 2011
Fig. 3-2	<i>Treponema primitia</i> str. ZAS-1	CP001843	Ballor <i>et al.</i> 2011
Fig. 3-2	<i>Novosphingobium aromaticivorans</i>	AF079317	Romine <i>et al.</i> 1999
Fig. 3-2	<i>Novosphingobium</i> sp.	FR856862	D'Argenio <i>et al.</i> 2011
Fig. 3-2	<i>Methylocella silvestris</i>	CP001280	Chen <i>et al.</i> 2010
Fig. 3-2	<i>Sphingobium japonicum</i>	AP010803	Nagata <i>et al.</i> 2010
Fig. 3-2	<i>Azoarcus</i> sp.	AM406670	Krause <i>et al.</i> 2006
Fig. 3-2	<i>Thauera</i> sp.	CP001281	NA
Fig. 3-2	<i>Dechloromonas aromatica</i>	CP000089	NA
Fig. 3-2	<i>Azotobacter vinelandii</i>	CP001157	Setubal <i>et al.</i> 2009
Fig. 3-2	<i>Methylibium petroleiphilum</i>	CP000555	Kane <i>et al.</i> 2007
		Catechol 2,3-dioxygenase	
		Accession Number	
Fig. 3-3	<i>Novosphingobium aromaticivorans</i>	NP_049202	Romine <i>et al.</i> 1999
Fig. 3-3	<i>Sphingomonas agrestis</i>	AAB03075	Yrjala <i>et al.</i> 1994
Fig. 3-3	<i>Rhizobium</i> sp.	ABF82226	NA
Fig. 3-3	<i>Beijerinckia</i> sp.	B57264	Kim and Zylstra 1995
Fig. 3-3	<i>Sphingomonas</i> sp.	AAM14600	NA
Fig. 3-3	<i>Sphingomonas</i> sp.	ADK27485	NA
Fig. 3-3	<i>Novosphingobium pentaromativorans</i>	ZP_09195387	NA
Fig. 3-3	<i>Novosphingobium</i> sp.	YP_004534265	D'Argenio <i>et al.</i> 2011
Fig. 3-3	<i>Sphingomonas</i> sp.	AAD11448	NA
Fig. 3-3	<i>Sphingomonas</i> sp.	AAD11452	NA
Fig. 3-3	<i>Treponema primitia</i> str. ZAS-1	ZP_09718346	Ballor <i>et al.</i> 2011
Fig. 3-3	<i>Treponema primitia</i> str. ZAS-2	YP_004531633	Rosenthal <i>et al.</i> 2011
Fig. 3-3	lake sediment		
Fig. 3-3	activated sludge	BAH89314	Suenaga <i>et al.</i> 2007; Suenaga <i>et al.</i> 2009
Fig. 3-3	activated sludge	BAH90343	Suenaga <i>et al.</i> 2007; Suenaga <i>et al.</i> 2009
Fig. 3-3	<i>Methylocella silvestris</i>	YP_002361794	Chen <i>et al.</i> 2010
Fig. 3-3	<i>Sphingobium japonicum</i>	YP_003544642	Nagata <i>et al.</i> 2010

Fig. 3-3	<i>Pseudomonas putida</i>	BAB62050	NA
Fig. 3-3	<i>Thauera</i> sp.	YP_002890083	NA
Fig. 3-3	<i>Dechloromonas aromatica</i>	YP_287003	NA
Fig. 3-3	<i>Azotobacter vinelandii</i>	YP_002800217	Setubal <i>et al.</i> 2009 Keil <i>et al.</i> 1985; Keil <i>et al.</i> 1987a; Keil <i>et al.</i> 1987b; Osborne <i>et al.</i> 1988; Assinder <i>et al.</i> 1992; Assinder <i>et al.</i> 1993; Gallegos <i>et al.</i> 1997; Sentchilo <i>et al.</i> 2000; Tsuda and Genka 2001; Yano <i>et al.</i> 2007;
Fig. 3-3	<i>Pseudomonas putida</i>	YP_709322	Miyakoshi <i>et al.</i> 2012
Fig. 3-3	<i>Alcaligenes xylosoxydans</i>		
Fig. 3-3	<i>Marinobacter algicola</i>	ZP_01893284	NA
Fig. 3-3	whale fall rib bone		
Fig. 3-3	<i>Marinobacterium stanieri</i>	ZP_09507225	NA
Fig. 3-3	<i>Marinobacterium stanieri</i> marine gamma proteobacterium	ZP_09506167	NA
Fig. 3-3	HTCC2207	ZP_01224201	NA
Fig. 3-3	sludge		
Fig. 3-3	<i>Novosphingobium nitrogenifigens</i>	ZP_08210144	NA
Fig. 3-3	<i>Cupriavidus necator</i>		
Fig. 3-3	<i>Methyloversatilis universalis</i>	ZP_08506618	NA
Fig. 3-3	<i>Methylibium petroleiphilum</i>	YP_001021468	Kane <i>et al.</i> 2007
2-hydroxymuconic hydrolase Accession Number			
Fig. 3-4	<i>Rhodococcus equi</i>	YP_004004919	Letek <i>et al.</i> 2008; Letek <i>et al.</i> 2010
Fig. 3-4	<i>Intrasporangium calvum</i>	YP_004098338	Del Rio <i>et al.</i> 2010
Fig. 3-4	<i>Kyripidia tusciae</i>	YP_003588846	NA
Fig. 3-4	<i>Solibacillus silvestris</i>	YP_006460640	Morohoshi <i>et al.</i> 2012
Fig. 3-4	<i>Bacillus tusciae</i>	YP_003590143	NA
Fig. 3-4	<i>Novosphingobium aromaticivorans</i>	NP_049203	Romine <i>et al.</i> 1999
Fig. 3-4	<i>Novosphingobium pentaromativorans</i>	ZP_09195386	NA
Fig. 3-4	<i>Novosphingobium</i> sp.	YP_004534264	D'Argenio <i>et al.</i> 2011
Fig. 3-4	whale fall rib bone		
Fig. 3-4	<i>Lysobacter</i> sp.	BAH80176	NA
Fig. 3-4	<i>Treponema primitia</i> str. ZAS-1	ZP_09718351	Ballor <i>et al.</i> 2011
Fig. 3-4	<i>Treponema primitia</i> str. ZAS-2	YP_004531638	Rosenthal <i>et al.</i> 2011
Fig. 3-4	lake sediment		
Fig. 3-4	<i>Arcobacter</i> sp.	YP_005554631	Toh <i>et al.</i> 2011
Fig. 3-4	<i>Leptothrix cholodnii</i>	YP_001792367	NA
Fig. 3-4	<i>Delftia</i> sp.	ZP_11254636	NA
Fig. 3-4	<i>Alcaligenes faecalis</i>	ABV30923	NA

			Nikodem <i>et al.</i> 2003; Camara <i>et al.</i> 2007a; Camara <i>et al.</i> 2007b
Fig. 3-4	<i>Pseudomonas reinekei</i>	ABH07023	
Fig. 3-4	<i>Dechloromonas aromatica</i>	YP_286985	NA
Fig. 3-4	<i>Azoarcus</i> sp.	YP_933472	Krause <i>et al.</i> 2006
Fig. 3-4	<i>Acidovorax</i> sp.	YP_984551	NA
			Suenaga <i>et al.</i> , 2007; Suenaga <i>et al.</i> , 2009
Fig. 3-4	activated sludge	BAH89584	
Fig. 3-4	<i>Methylibium petroleiphilum</i>	YP_001021465	Kane <i>et al.</i> 2007
Fig. 3-4	<i>Thauera</i> sp.	YP_002890084	NA
			Keil <i>et al.</i> 1985; Keil <i>et al.</i> 1987a; Keil <i>et al.</i> 1987b; Osborne <i>et al.</i> 1988; Assinder <i>et al.</i> 1992; Assinder <i>et al.</i> 1993; Gallegos <i>et al.</i> 1997; Sentchilo <i>et al.</i> 2000; Tsuda and Genka 2001; Yano <i>et al.</i> 2007; Miyakoshi <i>et al.</i> 2012
Fig. 3-4	<i>Pseudomonas putida</i>	YP_709324	
Fig. 3-4	<i>Methyloversatilis universalis</i>	ZP_08506603	NA
			Suenaga <i>et al.</i> , 2007; Suenaga <i>et al.</i> , 2009
Fig. 3-4	activated sludge	BAH90404	
Fig. 3-4	<i>Novosphingobium nitrogenifigens</i>	ZP_08210141	NA
Fig. 3-4	sludge		
Fig. 3-4	<i>Thiothrix nivea</i>	WP_002710562	NA
Fig. 3-4	<i>Rhodococcus jostii</i>	YP_707286	McLeod <i>et al.</i> 2006
Fig. 3-4	<i>Rhodococcus erythropolis</i>	NP_898789	Stecker <i>et al.</i> 2003
2-oxopent-4-enoate Hydratase			
Accession Number			
Fig. 3-5	<i>Azoarcus</i> sp.	YP_933478	Krause <i>et al.</i> 2006 Suenaga <i>et al.</i> , 2007; Suenaga <i>et al.</i> , 2009
Fig. 3-5	activated sludge	BAH89311	
Fig. 3-5	<i>Novosphingobium pentaromativorans</i>	ZP_09195390	NA
Fig. 3-5	<i>Methylocella silvestris</i>	YP_002361797	Chen <i>et al.</i> 2010
Fig. 3-5	<i>Sphingobium japonicum</i>	YP_003544633	Nagata <i>et al.</i> 2010
Fig. 3-5	<i>Azotobacter vinelandii</i>	YP_002800201	Setubal <i>et al.</i> 2009
Fig. 3-5	<i>Methylibium petroleiphilum</i>	YP_001021464	Kane <i>et al.</i> 2007
Fig. 3-5	<i>Burkholderia</i> sp.		
Fig. 3-5	<i>Arcobacter</i> sp.	YP_005554636	Toh <i>et al.</i> 2011
Fig. 3-5	<i>Marinobacter manganoxydans</i>	ZP_09159763	NA
			Suenaga <i>et al.</i> , 2007; Suenaga <i>et al.</i> , 2009
Fig. 3-5	activated sludge	BAH89583	Keil <i>et al.</i> 1985; Keil <i>et al.</i> 1987a; Keil <i>et al.</i> 1987b; Osborne <i>et al.</i> 1988; Assinder <i>et al.</i> 1992;
Fig. 3-5	<i>Pseudomonas putida</i>	YP_709325	

			Assinder <i>et al.</i> 1993; Gallegos <i>et al.</i> 1997; Sentchilo <i>et al.</i> 2000; Tsuda and Genka 2001; Yano <i>et al.</i> 2007; Miyakoshi <i>et al.</i> 2012
Fig. 3-5	<i>Methyloversatilis universalis</i>	ZP_08506604	NA
Fig. 3-5	<i>Dechloromonas aromatica</i>	YP_286984	NA
Fig. 3-5	<i>Ralstonia eutropha</i>	YP_728710	Pohlmann <i>et al.</i> 2006
Fig. 3-5	<i>Geobacillus</i> sp.	YP_003988985	NA
Fig. 3-5	<i>Carboxydotherrmus hydrogenoformans</i>	YP_360112	Wu <i>et al.</i> , 2005
Fig. 3-5	<i>Thermosinus carboxydivorans</i>	ZP_01665862	NA
			Kosaka <i>et al.</i> , 2006;
Fig. 3-5	<i>Pelotomaculum thermopropionicum</i>	YP_001211031	Kosaka <i>et al.</i> , 2008
Fig. 3-5	<i>Desulfotomaculum nigrificans</i>	ZP_08114002	NA
Fig. 3-5	<i>Moorella thermoacetica</i>	YP_430621	Pierce <i>et al.</i> , 2008
Fig. 3-5	<i>Flavonifractor plautii</i>	ZP_09382281	NA
Fig. 3-5	<i>Acetonema longum</i>	ZP_08624290	NA
Fig. 3-5	<i>Bacillus cereus</i>	ZP_03107092	
Fig. 3-5	<i>Treponema primitia</i> str. ZAS-1	ZP_09718350	Ballor <i>et al.</i> 2011
Fig. 3-5	<i>Treponema primitia</i> str. ZAS-2	YP_004531637	Rosenthal <i>et al.</i> 2011
Fig. 3-5	<i>Solibacillus silvestris</i>	YP_006460632	Morohoshi <i>et al.</i> , 2012
Fig. 3-5	<i>Brevibacillus brevis</i>	YP_002772457	NA
Fig. 3-5	<i>Paenibacillus</i> sp.	BAH79101	Kasai <i>et al.</i> , 2009
Fig. 3-5	<i>Geobacillus stearothermophilus</i>	AAZ76889	NA
Fig. 3-5	<i>Sulfobacillus acidophilus</i>	YP_005258131	NA
Fig. 3-5	<i>Halobacterium</i> sp.	ZP_09027988	NA
Fig. 3-5	<i>Alicyclobacillus acidocaldarius</i>	YP_003185022	Mavromatis <i>et al.</i> , 2010
Fig. 3-5	<i>Thermomicrobium roseum</i>	YP_002522592	Wu <i>et al.</i> , 2009
Fig. 3-5	<i>Salmonella bongori</i>	YP_004729834	NA
Fig. 3-5	<i>Intrasporangium calvum</i>	YP_004098344	Del Rio <i>et al.</i> , 2010

Table 3A-2: Gene expression patterns of *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-2 in mono-culture or co-culture with *T. azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9

Cohort	Expression Range (reads/kb)	Mono-Culture		Co-Culture	
		No. genes	%	No. genes	%
1 ^a	0	344	9	395	10
2	1-9	503	13	556	14
3 ^b	10-99	1642	43	1548	40
4 ^c	100-999	1248	32	1234	32
5	> 1000	110	3	117	3

Analysis complements Table 3A-3.

Analysis based on expression dataset from Rosenthal *et al.* 2011.

^aIn addition to having 0 reads/kb, all genes in Cohort 1 have 0 expression.

^bCohort includes *meta*-pathway 2-hydroxymuconic semialdehyde hydrolase, 2-oxopent-4-enoate hydratase, 4-hydroxy-2-oxopentanoate aldolase, acetaldehyde dehydrogenase, and the associated ferredoxin-like peptide.

^cCohort includes *meta*-pathway catechol 2,3-dioxygenase.

Table 3A-3: Expression of *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-2 genes

Gene	Pure-Culture Expression (reads/kb)	Co-Culture Expression (reads/kb)
<u>Meta-pathway</u>		
Ferredoxin-like peptide ^a	53	13
catechol 2,3-dioxygenase ^b	219	170
2-hydroxymuconic semialdehyde hydrolase ^a	43	60
2-oxopent-4-enoate hydratase ^a	60	43
4-hydroxy-2-oxopentanoate aldolase ^a	61	36
acetaldehyde dehydrogenase ^a	59	62
<u>House-keeping</u>		
ATP-dependent Clp protease ATP-binding subunit ClpX	314	345
Metallo-beta-lactamase family protein, RNA-specific	140	144
RNA polymerase sigma factor RpoD	72	77
RNA polymerase sigma factor RpoD	183	135
RNA polymerase sigma factor RpoD	188	162
RNA polymerase sigma factor RpoD	94	92
RNA polymerase sigma factor RpoD	30	94
<u>Acetogenesis</u>		
Formate dehydrogenase chain D	62	2
Formate dehydrogenase chain D	399	21
Formate dehydrogenase; cysteine-containing variant	601	33
Formate dehydrogenase; selenocysteine-containing variant	168	331
Carbon monoxide dehydrogenase CooS subunit	2698	2524
Formate-tetrahydrofolate ligase (FTHFS)	1463	1600
<u>Glycolysis</u>		
Hexokinase	168	190
Glucose-6-phosphate isomerase	169	170
6-phosphofructokinase	121	139
Fructose-bisphosphate aldolase class II	703	947
Triosephosphate isomerase	344	418
NAD-dependent glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase	134	173
NAD-dependent glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase	152	167
2,3-bisphosphoglycerate-independent phosphoglycerate mutase	440	393
Enolase	851	967
Pyruvate kinase	89	93
<u>Misc.</u>		
acetate kinase	914	1085
Fe-S cluster containing hydrogenase components 2	552	39
Periplasmic [Fe] hydrogenase large subunit	495	31

Expression data from Rosenthal *et al.* 2011.

^aBelong to Cohort 3 (Table 3A-2).

^bBelongs to Cohort 4 (Table 3A-2).

Table 3A-4: Genes unique to *Treponema* genomes relative to metagenome of *Nasutitermes* sp. P3 hindgut region***Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-1**

DCMPdeaminase
 UncharacterizedproteinTP_0813
 SignalpeptidaseI(EC3.4.21.89)
 Probablesignalpeptideprotein
 UncharacterizedproteinTP_0181
 Xyloseisomerase(EC5.3.1.5)
 transcriptionalregulator,AraCfamily
 oxidoreductase,aldo>ketoreductasefamily
 anti-sigmaFfactorantagonist(spoIIAA-2);
 HPrkinase>phosphorylase(EC2.7.1.-)(EC
 Aspartyl-tRNA(Asn)amidotransferasesubunitB
 RiboseABCtransportsystem,periplasmic
 RiboseABCtransportsystem,ATP-binding
 RiboseABCtransportsystem,permeaseprotein
 Biofilm-associatedprotein
 HydroxymethylpyrimidineABCtransporter,ATPase
 HydroxymethylpyrimidineABCtransporter,
 CelldivisionproteinmraZ
 S-adenosyl-methyltransferasemraW(EC2.1.1.-)
 Rossmannfoldnucleotide-bindingproteinSmf
 Ribosome-bindingfactorA
 sensoryboxhistidinekinase>response
 PhnBprotein;putativeDNAbinding
 Probableextracellularnuclease
 Nitrogenaseironprotein(EC1.18.6.1)
 Single-strandedDNA-bindingprotein
 Threonyl-tRNA synthetase(EC6.1.1.3)
 ABCtransporter,ATP-bindingprotein
 ABCtransporter,permeaseprotein
 Two-componentresponseregulator
 RiboseABCtransportsystem,periplasmic
 RiboseABCtransportsystem,permeaseprotein
 Riboseoperonrepressor
 Esterase>lipase
 Transcriptionalregulator,MarRfamily
 Cellsurfaceprotein
 Streptococcalhemagglutininprotein
 Cystathioninebeta-lyase(EC4.4.1.8)
 Sensoryboxhistidinekinase>response
 Aspartatecarbamoyltransferase(EC2.1.3.2)
 Putativesugartransporter
 Nitrogenasemolybdenum-cofactorsynthesis
 Nitrogenasevanadium-cofactorsynthesisprotein
 ABC-typenitrate>sulfonate>bicarbonate
 ABC-typenitrate>sulfonate>bicarbonate
 TaurinetransportATP-bindingproteintauB
 Cysteinesynthase(EC2.5.1.47)

Nitrogenase vanadium-cofactor synthesis protein
 Nitrogenase (molybdenum-iron) alpha chain (EC
 Transketolase, C-terminal section (EC2.2.1.1)
 Transketolase, N-terminal section (EC2.2.1.1)
 L-idonate 5-dehydrogenase (EC1.1.1.264)>
 Melibiose operon regulatory protein
 Ribose ABC transport system, ATP-binding
 Ribose ABC transport system, permease protein
 Methyl-accepting chemotaxis protein
 dTDP-rhamnosyl transferase rfbF (EC2.-.-.-)
 O-antigen polymerase
 Mannosyl transferase (EC2.4.1.-)
 UDP-glucose 4-epimerase (EC5.1.3.2)
 Maltose O-acetyl transferase (EC2.3.1.79)
 O-antigen flippase Wzx
 Beta-1,3-glucosyl transferase
 UDP-glucose 4-epimerase (EC5.1.3.2)
 dTDP-4-dehydro rhamnose 3,5-epimerase (EC
 Exopolysaccharide production protein
 capsular polysaccharide biosynthesis protein
 Glycosyl transferase
 Beta-1,3-glucosyl transferase
 Beta-1,3-glucosyl transferase
 oxidoreductase of aldo>ketoreductase family,
 3-oxoacyl-acyl-carrier-protein] synthase,
 3-oxoacyl-acyl-carrier-protein] reductase
 3-oxoacyl-ACP] reductase
 3-oxoacyl-acyl-carrier-protein] synthase,
 3-oxoacyl-acyl-carrier-protein] synthase,
 Related to F420H2-dehydrogenase, beta subunit
 dTDP-glucose 4,6-dehydratase (EC4.2.1.46)
 Cytosine>purine>uracil>thiamine>allantoin
 Putative DNA primase>helicase
 Tyrosine-protein kinase wzc (EC2.7.1.112)
 Polysialic acid transport protein kpsD
 Sugar ABC transporter, periplasmic
 Maltose>maltodextrin ABC transporter, permease
 Maltose>maltodextrin ABC transporter, permease
 DNA-binding transcriptional regulator
 Kef-type K⁺ transport systems (NAD-binding
 HIT family protein
 NAD(P)-dependent glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate
 Phosphoglycerate kinase (EC2.7.2.3)
 Inositol dehydratase (EC4.2.1.44)
 Epi-inositol hydrolase
 5-keto-2-deoxygluconokinase B (EC2.7.1.92)
 Sugar ABC transporter, periplasmic
 Ribose ABC transport system, ATP-binding
 Ribose ABC transport system, permease protein

IolI protein
 Branched-chain amino acid ABC transporter,
 High-affinity branched-chain amino acid
 Branched-chain amino acid transport system
 Branched-chain amino acid transport ATP-binding
 Branched-chain amino acid transport ATP-binding
 Branched-chain amino acid transport ATP-binding
 Branched-chain amino acid transport ATP-binding
 Branched-chain amino acid transport ATP-binding
 High-affinity branched-chain amino acid
 Branched-chain amino acid transport system
 Branched-chain amino acid ABC transporter,
 diguanylate cyclase (GGDEF domain) with PAS>PAC
 Membrane spanning protein
 Nitrogen regulatory protein P-II
 Ornithine decarboxylase (EC 4.1.1.17)>
 UPF0118 membrane protein BB_0006
 methyl-accepting chemotaxis protein
 methyl-accepting chemotaxis protein
 Oligopeptide transport ATP-binding protein oppF
 Oligopeptide transport ATP-binding protein oppD
 Oligopeptide transport system permease protein
 archaeal ATPase, fused to C-terminal DUF234
 Anaerobic dimethylsulfoxide reductase chain A
 O-acetylhomoserine sulphydrylase (EC 4.2.99.10)
 Putative amino-acid transporter periplasmic
 Methionine ABC transporter ATP-binding protein
 D-galactose-binding periplasmic protein
 Galactoside transport ATP-binding protein mglA
 Galactoside transport system permease protein
 Circadian input kinase A
 Two-component system sensor protein
 Ureacarbonylase-related ABC transporter,
 Nitrogen regulatory protein P-II
 Nitrogen regulatory protein P-II
 Ureacarbonylase (EC 6.3.4.6)
 sensory box histidine kinase>response
 Acyl carrier protein
 BchE>P-methylase family protein
 Xaa-Pro aminopeptidase (EC 3.4.11.9)
 Uncharacterized protein in archaea
 TVG1219960 protein
 Cell surface protein
 Antiholin-like protein LrgA
 lrgA-associated membrane protein LrgB
 Multiple sugar ABC transporter,
 Multiple sugar ABC transporter,
 Multiple sugar ABC transporter,
 Maltose operon transcriptional repressor MalR,

OmpA family protein
 3-oxoacyl-(acyl-carrier-protein) synthase
 Carbon dioxide concentrating mechanism protein
 Propanediol utilization polyhedral body protein
 Propanediol utilization polyhedral body protein
 class II aldolase > adducin domain protein
 L-fuculokinase (EC 2.7.1.51)
 Ribose ABC transport system, periplasmic
 Ribose ABC transport system, ATP-binding
 Ribose ABC transport system, permease protein
 Redox-sensitive transcriptional regulator
 D-tagatose 3-epimerase (EC 5.3.1.-)
 Putative oxidoreductase
 IolI protein
 Multiple sugar ABC transporter,
 Multiple sugar ABC transporter,
 Probable hemagglutinin > hemolysin-related
 putative DNA primase > helicase
 Regulator of polyketide synthase expression
 Hydantoin racemase (EC 5.1.99.-)
 Catalyzes the cleavage of
 Flagellin protein flaA
 Two-component system sensor protein
 CTP:Inositol-1-phosphate cytidyl transferase
 Capsular polysaccharide synthesis enzyme cpsI,
 Inner membrane protein
 Inner membrane protein
 putative bifunctional polymerase
 Alpha-1,4-N-acetylgalactosaminyl transferase
 UDP-glucose dehydrogenase (EC 1.1.1.22)
 Bll3360 protein
 Beta-1,3-glucosyl transferase
 Phospholipid-lipopolysaccharide ABC
 MoxR-like ATPases
 Benzoyl-CoA reductase subunit BadG (EC
 Formate dehydrogenase chain D (EC 1.2.1.2)
 Formate dehydrogenase H (EC 1.2.1.2)
 Tropomodulin 1
 DNA-damage-inducible protein J, putative
 Small ribosomal subunit 16S rRNA
 anti-sigma factor antagonist (spoIIAA-2);
 Phage shock protein A
 FOG: CheY-like receiver
 Transcriptional regulator, luxR family,
 Glycerol-3-phosphate ABC transporter,
 Methyl-accepting chemotaxis protein
 Type II restriction-modification enzyme
 ATPase family protein
 Radical SAM domain protein

Mlr4706protein
 Sensorytransductionhistidinekinase
 Antibioticresistanceprotein
 GMPsynthaseglutamine-hydrolyzing](EC
 Nitrogenase(iron-iron)betachain(EC
 Nitrogenase(iron-iron)deltachain(EC
 Nitrogenase(iron-iron)alphachain(EC
 NitrogenregulatoryproteinP-II
 NitrogenregulatoryproteinP-II
 Nitrogenaseironprotein(EC1.18.6.1)
 L-threonine3-O-phosphatedecarboxylase(EC
 NAD-dependentproteinacetylaseofSIR2
 SAPDNA-bindingdomain-containingprotein
 Transcriptionalregulator,DeoRfamily
 Ribose5-phosphateisomeraseB(EC5.3.1.6)
 Tributyrinesterase
 RiboseABCtransportsystem,permeaseprotein
 Oxidoreductase,shortchain
 PutativeROK-familytranscriptionalregulator
 Nitroreductase
 Propionatecatabolismoperonregulatoryprotein
 Phosphopantothenoylcysteinesynthetase(EC
 ENDO-TYPE6-AMINOHEXANOATEOLIGOMERHYDROLASE
 HcptranscriptionalregulatorHcpR(Crp>Fnr
 Sensorproteinofzincsigma-54-dependent
 Type4fimbriaeexpressionregulatoryprotein
 Long-chain-fatty-acid--CoAligase(EC6.2.1.3)
 Peptidoglycan-bindingLysM
 Signaltransductionhistidinekinase
 Integrase
 TnpY
 TPRrepeatprecursor
 CatabolitecontrolproteinA
 RiboseABCtransportsystem,ATP-binding
 RiboseABCtransportsystem,permeaseprotein
 RiboseABCtransportsystem,permeaseprotein
 RiboseABCtransporter,periplasmic
 Mll7147protein
 RiboseABCtransportsystem,periplasmic
 RiboseABCtransportsystem,ATP-binding
 RiboseABCtransportsystem,permeaseprotein
 Uroporphyrinogen-IIIdecarboxylase
 RiboseABCtransportsystem,permeaseprotein
 RiboseABCtransporter,periplasmic
 RiboseABCtransportsystem,ATP-binding
 Putativeexportedproteinprecursor
 Sodium-dependentphosphatetransporter
 Xylulosekinase(EC2.7.1.17)
 Hemerythrin-likeproteinMJ0747

Putativelipoprotein
 Outermembranelipoproteinomp16precursor
 Sensoryboxhistidinekinase
 Two-componentresponseregulator
 LSUribosomalproteinL32p
 Transcriptionalregulator,GntRfamily
 Dihydroxy-aciddehydratase(EC4.2.1.9)
 Nitroreductase
 methyl-acceptingchemotaxisprotein
 EnergyconservinghydrogenaseEhb
 Hydrolase(HADsuperfamily)
 Iron-sulfurclusterregulatorIscR
 Cystathioninebeta-lyase(EC4.4.1.8)
 Transcriptionalregulator,Cro>CIfamily
 Phospholipid-lipopolysaccharideABC
 GalactosideO-acetyltransferase(EC2.3.1.18)
 Carbamoyl-phosphatesynthaselargechain(EC
 Taurinetransportersubstrate-bindingprotein
 ABC-typenitrate>sulfonate>bicarbonate
 TaurinetransportsystempermeaseproteintauC
 TaurinetransportATP-bindingproteintauB
 UncharacterizedproteinRv1507c>MT1555
 Glycosyltransferase
 Beta-1,3-galactosyltransferase>
 CDP-ribitol:poly(ribitolphosphate)ribitol
 Glycosyltransferasedomainprotein
 membraneprotein,putative
 Choline-phosphatecytidyltransferase
 CholinepermeaseLicB
 Beta-1,3-glucosyltransferase
 Acetyltransferase,CYSE>LACA>LPXA>NODLfamily
 O-antigenpolymerase
 O-antigenpolymerase
 Glycosyltransferase(EC2.4.1.-)
 Succinoglycanbiosynthesisprotein
 UDP-glucose4-epimerase(EC5.1.3.2)
 Glycosyltransferase,group1familyprotein
 Colanicacidbiosynthesisglycosyltransferase
 Putativetelluriumresistanceprotein
 Two-componentresponseregulator-likeprotein
 serine>threoninekinase
 serine>threoninekinase
 Leaprotein-soybean
 Probabletwo-componentsensor,nearpolyamine
 sensoryboxhistidinekinase>response
 cellwallsurfaceanchorfamilyprotein
 twitchingmotilityproteinPilH
 Transcriptionalregulator
 ATP-dependenthelicaseHrpB

putativetransposase
 Cellsurfaceprotein
 InterPro:FibronectintypeIII domain
 TonB-dependentreceptor
 5'-nucleotidase(EC3.1.3.5)
 Neopullulanase(EC3.2.1.135)
 GlutathioneS-transferasedomainprotein
 Cystathioninegamma-lyase(EC4.4.1.1)
 ABCtransporter,substrate-bindingprotein
 ABCtransporter,substrate-bindingprotein
 Catalyzesthecleavageof
 TetRfamilytranscriptionalregulatorprobably
 GlutamatesynthaseNADPH]smallchain(EC
 RegulatoryproteinrecX
 Sensoryboxhistidinekinase>response
 FOG:CheY-like receiver
 Helix-turn-helixprotein,CopG
 Transcriptionalactivatorofmaltoseregulon,
 Corrinoidmethyltransferaseprotein
 Transposase,mutatorfamily
 Sensoryboxhistidinekinase>response
 Responseregulator>phosphatase
 Na+drivenmultidrugeffluxpump
 Transcriptionalregulator,MarRfamily
 Flagellarhook-lengthcontrolproteinfliK
 MembranemucinMUC17
 N-acyl-D-amino-aciddeacylasefamilyprotein
 Transcriptionalregulator,DeoRfamily
 ProteininvolvedincatabolismofexternalDNA
 DHHfamily>DHHA1domainprotein
 Lactoylglutathionelyase(EC4.4.1.5)
 Chloridechannelprotein
 Mg-protoporphyrinIXmonomethylesteroxidative
 OligoendopeptidaseF
 CorecomponentFbpfpredictedfolateECF
 ATPasecomponentofgeneralenergizingmodule
 Transmembranecomponentofgeneralenergizing
 bacterialseryl-tRNA synthetaserelated
 NADbindingoxidoreductase
 2-hydroxy-6-oxohepta-2,4-dienoatehydrolase
 Transcriptionalregulator,TetRfamily
 TypeIrestriction-modificationsystem,
 TypeIrestriction-modificationsystem,
 putativetwo-componentsystemsensorthistidine
 Adenosylcobinamide-phosphate
 Nitrogenasemolybdenum-cofactorsynthesis
 Nitrogenaseironprotein(EC1.18.6.1)
 RibonucleasePproteincomponent(EC3.1.26.5)
 DNA-bindingdomainofModE

D-tagatose 3-epimerase (EC 5.3.1.-)
 Formiminotetrahydrofolate cyclodeaminase (EC
 Lead, cadmium, zinc and mercury transporting
 Acetylornithine
 amino acid ABC transporter, ATP-binding
 amino acid ABC transporter, amino acid-binding
 Amino acid ABC transporter, permease protein
 Amino acid ABC transporter, permease protein
 Methylcobalamin: coenzyme M methyltransferase,
 Beta-phosphoglucomutase (EC 5.4.2.6)
 Maltose phosphorylase (EC 2.4.1.8) > Trehalose
 Multiple sugar ABC transporter,
 SOS-response transcriptional repressors
 Fe-S oxidoreductase
 Regulator of polyketide synthase expression
 VrlP
 Superfamily IID DNA > RNA helicases, SNF2 family
 ATP-dependent RNA helicase
 VrlK
 VrlJ
 ATPase
 transposase, mutator family
 FOG: CheY-like receiver
 Sensory box histidine kinase > response
 MutT domain protein-like
 Abortive infection protein AbiGII
 abortive infection protein AbiGI
 Uroporphyrinogen-III decarboxylase
 LysR family regulatory protein CidR
 Ferric siderophore transport system,
 Molybdenum transport ATP-binding protein modC
 ABC-TYPE IRON (III) TRANSPORT SYSTEM
 Iron (III) dicitrate transport system permease
 Iron ABC transporter, solute-binding protein
 Methyltransferase, UbiE > COQ5 family
 Ni²⁺-binding GTPase involved in regulation of
 ABC transporter, ATP-binding protein
 Spermidine > putrescine-binding protein
 Glucitol operon repressor
 Transketolase, C-terminal section (EC 2.2.1.1)
 Maltose > maltodextrin ABC transporter, substrate
 Multiple sugar ABC transporter,
 Glycerol kinase (EC 2.7.1.30)
 Serine > threonine protein kinase
 Beta-1,3-glucosyltransferase
 Adenylate kinase (EC 2.7.4.3)
 Multiple sugar ABC transporter,
 SN-glycerol-3-phosphate transport system
 Multiple sugar ABC transporter,

Ribose5-phosphateisomeraseB(EC5.3.1.6)
 Helix-turn-helixmotif
 Xylulosekinase(EC2.7.1.17)
 MultiplesugarABCtransporter,
 N-Acetyl-D-glucosamineABCtransportsystem,
 L-fucosemutarotase
 RiboseABCtransportsystem,permeaseprotein
 RiboseABCtransportsystem,ATP-binding
 RiboseABCtransportsystem,periplasmic
 Glucokinase(EC2.7.1.2)
 PossibleD-erythrose4-phosphate
 Galactitol-1-phosphate5-dehydrogenase(EC
 Ribulose-phosphate3-epimerase(EC5.1.3.1)
 Mo>Fe-nitrogenase-specifictranscriptional
 ATPase
 Thiolperoxidase,Tpx-type(EC1.11.1.15)
 Predictedmolybdate-responsiveregulatorYvgK
 HuntingtoninteractingproteinHYPE
 Probablemultipleantibioticresistanceprotein
 Purinenucleotidesynthesisrepressor
 RiboseABCtransportsystem,periplasmic
 RiboseABCtransportsystem,ATP-binding
 RiboseABCtransportsystem,permeaseprotein
 DNA-damage-inducibleproteinJ
 Metaltransporter,ZIPfamily
 L-rhamnosemutarotase
 RiboseABCtransportsystem,ATP-binding
 RiboseABCtransportsystem,permeaseprotein
 RiboseABCtransportsystem,permeaseprotein
 Transcriptionalregulator,Cro>CIfamily
 XyloserepressorXylR(ROKfamily)
 RiboseABCtransportsystem,periplasmic
 RiboseABCtransportsystem,ATP-binding
 Sorbitoldehydrogenase(EC1.1.1.14)
 L-xylulose>3-keto-L-gulonatekinase(EC
 L-xylulose5-phosphate3-epimerase(EC5.1.3.-)
 Ribosomallargesubunitpseudouridinesynthase
 RiboseABCtransportsystem,periplasmic
 RiboseABCtransportsystem,permeaseprotein
 RiboseABCtransportsystem,ATP-binding
 Leaderpeptidase(Prepilinpeptidase)(EC
 glycosylhydrolase
 Hydrolase(HADsuperfamily)
 L-2-haloalkanoicaciddehalogenase
 Putativehigh-affinityironpermease
 Periplasmicproteinp19involvedin
 probableintegralmembraneproteinCj1660
 SimilartoABCtransporter:egYBJZ_ECOLI
 Putativemembraneprotein

PutativeABCtransportssystemATP-binding
 Putativepheromoneprecursorlipoprotein
 Signaltransductionhistidinekinase
 SpermidinePutrescine transportATP-binding
 LSUribosomalproteinL4p(L1e)
 SSUribosomalproteinS14p(S29e)
 Malatedehydrogenase(EC1.1.1.37)
 Cellsurfaceprotein
 Flagellarhook-lengthcontrolproteinfliK
 ZincABCtransporter,periplasmic-binding
 Oxidoreductase,aldo>ketoreductasefamily
 Cellsurfaceprotein
 transcriptionalregulator,GntRfamily
 2-hydroxymuconicsemialdehydehydrolase(EC
 4-oxalocrotonatedecarboxylase(EC4.1.1.77)
 Acetaldehydedehydrogenase(acetylating)
 4-hydroxy-2-oxovaleratealdolase(EC4.1.3.-)
 2-polyphenylphenolhydroxylaseandrelated
 Catechol2,3-dioxygenase(EC1.13.11.2)
 Probableextracellularnuclease
 Predictedmembraneprotein
 Majorheadprotein(LateproteinGp8)
 Putativeanti-terminatorregulatoryprotein
 membraneprotein
 HDfamilyhydrolase,diverged
 Adenylatecyclase(EC4.6.1.1)
 gnl
 TPRrepeat
 UncharacterizedproteinTM_0929
 putativeABCtransporter,periplasmic
 MultiplesugarABCtransporter,
 ProbableABCtransporterpermeaseprotein
 Transcriptionalrepressorofthearabinose
 Alpha-mannosidase(EC3.2.1.24)
 DNA-bindingresponseregulatorDegU
 Flavodoxin
 HeavymetaltranslocatingP-typeATPase
 2-dehydropantoate2-reductase(EC1.1.1.169)
 Responseregulator
 Cytochromec-typebiogenesisproteinCcs1>ResB
 Multiantimicrobial extrusionprotein
 Metallo-beta-lactamasesuperfamilyhydrolase
 HTHtranscriptionalregulatorTetRfamily
 Diaminopimelateepimerasehomolog
 Transporter
 Histidineammonia-lyase(EC4.3.1.3)
 GlycinebetainetransporterOpuD
 Histidineammonia-lyase(EC4.3.1.3)
 MethylaspartatemutaseSchain(EC5.4.99.1)

METHYLASPARTATEMUTASE(EC5.4.99.1)
 PutativeglutamatemutasesubunitE
 Methylaspartateammonia-lyase(EC4.3.1.2)
 DNAfor3-methylaspartateammonia-lyase,
 Transcriptionalregulator,GntRfamily>
 TAP1protein
 MutatormutTprotein
 sensoryboxhistidinekinase>response
 HDdomainprotein
 Mll1436protein
 Single-strandedDNA-bindingprotein
 Dihydrolipoamideacetyltransferasecomponent
 RiboseABCtransportsystem,permeaseprotein
 D-xylosetransportATP-bindingproteinxylG
 RiboseABCtransportsystem,periplasmic
 Galactose>methylgalactosideABCtransport
 SerinephosphataseRsbU,regulatorofsigma
 SerinephosphataseRsbU,regulatorofsigma
 Flagellarhook-lengthcontrolproteinfliK
 Adenylatecyclase(EC4.6.1.1)
 ATPsynthasedeltachain(EC3.6.3.14)
 containsPfamdomainPF04685:Proteinof
 Transcriptionalregulator,MerRfamily
 Mll3043protein
 Alanineracemase(EC5.1.1.1)
 Pirin
 Putativecytoplasmicprotein
 Threoninesynthase(EC4.2.3.1)
 D-ornithineaminomutaseScomponent
 Methylaspartatemutase(EC5.4.99.1)
 alpha-arabinosidesABCtransportsystem,
 alpha-arabinosidesABCtransportsystem,
 alpha-arabinosidesABCtransportsystem,
 Sucrosephosphorylase(EC2.4.1.7)
 sensoryboxhistidinekinase>response
 Nucleotidyltransferase(EC2.7.7.-)
 domainprotein
 Branched-chainaminoacidtransportATP-binding
 Branched-chainaminoacidtransportATP-binding
 Branched-chainaminoacidtransportsystem
 High-affinitybranched-chainaminoacid
 Branched-chainaminoacidABCtransporter,
 4-hydroxybenzoyl-CoAthioesterasefamilyactive
 GDP-L-fucosesynthetase(EC1.1.1.271)
 putativebacteriophageprotein
 ADAreulatoryprotein
 ATPase
 Sensoryboxhistidinekinase>response
 DNArecombinationandrepairproteinRecF

Ribokinase(EC2.7.1.15)
 Sodium-dependentphosphatetransporter
 ATPase
 Probablepoly(beta-D-mannuronate)O-acetylase
 RiboseABCtransportssystem,ATP-binding
 TaurinetransportATP-bindingproteintauB
 ABCtransporterpermeaseprotein
 RNAPolymerasesigmafactorRpoE
 Transcriptionalregulator
 MethionineABCtransporterATP-bindingprotein
 MultiplesugarABCtransporter,
 MultiplesugarABCtransporter,
 Cytotoxictranslationalrepressorof
 DNA-bindingprotein
 GGDEF
 Histoneprotein
 Ureacarboxylase
 Putativedeoxyribose-specificABCtransporter,
 bmpfamilyprotein
 Isochorismatasefamilyprotein
 Isochorismatasefamilyprotein
 Methioninegamma-lyase(EC4.4.1.11)
 Phosphatebutyryltransferase(EC2.3.1.19)
 Glutathioneperoxidase(EC1.11.1.9)
 membraneprotein
 ChaperoneproteinDnaK
 ChaperoneproteinDnaJ
 transcriptionalregulator,MarRfamily
 Nitroreductase
 FlagellarbiosynthesisproteinflhA
 HuntingtininteractingproteinE-likeprotein
 Two-componentsensorhistidinekinase
 FlaAhomolog-1
 DNA-bindingresponseregulator
 Flagellarhook-lengthcontrolproteinfliK
 Adenosylhomocysteinase(EC3.3.1.1)
 Mo>Fe-nitrogenase-specifictranscriptional
 Nitrogenaseironprotein(EC1.18.6.1)
 2-isopropylmalatesynthase(EC2.3.3.13)
 Xaa-Prodiptidase(EC3.4.13.9)
 ABCtransporterATP-bindingprotein-
 AminoacidABCtransporter,permeaseprotein
 ABCtransporter,substrate-bindingprotein
 Cysteinesynthase(EC2.5.1.47)
 PROBABLEACETYLTRANSFERASE(EC2.3.1.-)
 putativetransferase
 PutativeABC-typeamino-acidtransporter
 Aminoacid(Glutamine)ABCtransporter
 Amino-acidABCtransporterATP-bindingprotein

CRISPR-associated protein Cas2
 Probable AAA family ATPase
 Threonyl-tRNA synthetase (EC 6.1.1.3)
 putative bacteriophage protein
 Single-stranded DNA-binding protein
 probable membrane protein b2001
 putative transposase
 Lactate-responsive regulator LldRin
 Methionine biosynthesis and transport regulator
 Transposase, mutator family
 Cell surface protein
 serine>threonine kinase
 serine>threonine kinase
 Leaprotein-soybean
 Replicative DNA helicase (EC 3.6.1.-)
 Probable AAA family ATPase
 Putative kinase protein
 Putative tellurium resistance protein
 Probable extracellular nuclease
 Lysophospholipase (EC 3.1.1.5); Monoglyceride
 Aspartyl-tRNA synthetase (EC 6.1.1.12);
 PTS system, mannitol-specific IIC component (EC
 Mannitol operon activator, BglG family
 PTS system, mannitol-specific IIA component (EC
 Putative oxidoreductase
 putative membrane protein
 Lactose transport system permease protein lacF
 alpha-arabinosides ABC transport system,
 putative two-component system sensor kinase
 Methyl-accepting chemotaxis protein
 Sugar>maltose fermentation stimulation protein
 Probable extracellular nuclease
 Sensory box histidine kinase>response
 Putative pheromone precursor lipoprotein
 Putative sugar ABC transport system,
 MSM (multiple sugar metabolism) operon
 Inositol transport ATP-binding protein
 Ribose ABC transport system, permease protein
 Ribose ABC transport system, periplasmic
 Pyruvate formate-lyase (EC 2.3.1.54)
 2-keto-3-deoxy-D-arabino-heptulosonate-7-
 Two-component system sensor histidine
 BatB
 Lipase
 Sensory box histidine kinase>response
 Ribose ABC transporter, periplasmic
 Sensory box histidine kinase>response
 FOG: CheY-like receiver
 bmp family protein

FOG:CheY-like receiver
 Sensory box histidine kinase > response
 Transcription regulator contains
 Lactoylglutathionylase (EC 4.4.1.5)
 RNA-binding protein
 Putative inner membrane protein
 Dihydroxyacetone kinase, ATP-dependent (EC
 Heavy-metal-associated domain (N-terminus) and
 Xylose repressor XylR (ROK family)
 Ribose ABC transport system, ATP-binding
 Ribose ABC transport system, permease protein
 Ribose ABC transport system, periplasmic
 Large repetitive protein
 RND multidrug efflux transporter; Acriflavin
 Probable Co > Zn > Cd efflux system membrane fusion
 RecA protein
 RNA polymerase sigma factor RpoD
 Molybdate-binding domain of ModE
 Possible membrane transport protein
 Transcriptional regulator, GntR family
 Putative gntR family regulatory protein
 Peroxide stress regulator PerR, FUR family
 Putative deoxyribonuclease YcfH
 Dipeptide transport ATP-binding protein dppF
 Dipeptide transport ATP-binding protein dppD
 Dipeptide transport system permease protein
 Dipeptide transport system permease protein
 Methyltransferase (EC 2.1.1.-)
 Ubiquinone > menaquinone biosynthesis
 Zinc ABC transporter, inner membrane permease
 Zinc ABC transporter, ATP-binding protein ZnuC
 Cation ABC transporter, periplasmic binding
 Putative hemolysin
 TonB-dependent receptor
***T. primitia* str. ZAS-2**
 O-acyltransferase, putative
 probable poly(beta-D-mannuronate) O-acetylase (Alginate biosynthesis protein AlgI)
 lipopolysaccharide biosynthesis, putative
 NAD-dependent epimerase-dehydratase
 dTDP-rhamnosyltransferase RfbG
 glycosyltransferase, group
 capsular polysaccharide biosynthesis protein
 membrane protein, putative
 membrane protein, putative
 transporter
 glycosyltransferase
 glycosyltransferase sugar-binding region containing DXD motif
 O-unit flippase, putative
 putative pyruvate-formate lyase

tetratricopeptideTPR_
 tetratricopeptiderepeatdomainprotein
 lipoprotein,putative
 probableextracellularenuclease
 methyl-acceptingchemotaxisprotein
 anti-anti-sigmafactor
 phageshockproteinA,PspA
 PotDprotein
 spermidine-putrescineimportATP-bindingproteinPotA
 PotBprotein
 binding-protein-dependenttransportsystemsinnermembranecomponent
 putativephosphodiesterase
 lipoprotein,putative
 lipoprotein,putative
 lipoprotein,putative
 serine-threonine-proteinkinasePkn
 transcriptionalregulator,DeoRfamily
 sorbosereductaseSOU
 D-xylulosereductase(Xylitoldehydrogenase)(XDH)
 dihydropteridinereductase
 phosphopantothenoylecysteinesynthetase-decarboxylase
 peptidasefamilyT
 domainprotein
 EF-handcalcium-bindingdomain-containingprotein
 signaltransductionhistidinekinase,nitrogenspecific,NtrB,putative
 radicalSAMdomainprotein,putative
 ABCtransportercomponentA
 taurinetransportsystempermeaseproteinTauC
 nitratetransportATP-bindingproteinNrtC
 multi-sensorhybridhistidinekinase
 sulfatasedomainprotein
 methyltransferasedomainfamily
 ClpX,ATPaseregulatorysubunit,putative
 lipopolysaccharidebiosynthesisprotein,putative
 glycosyltransferase,group
 WfbF
 methyltransferaseFkbM
 methyltransferasetype
 methyltransferasetype
 membraneprotein,putative
 methyltransferaseFkbMfamily
 glyoxalasefamilyprotein
 riboseimportATP-bindingproteinRbsA
 nitrogenaseironprotein
 adenosine
 transcriptionalregulator,LacIfamily,putative
 ribosetransportsystempermeaseproteinRbsC
 riboseimportATP-bindingproteinRbsA
 multi-sensorhybridhistidinekinase

putative signaling protein
 aldo-keto reductase
 VanZ family protein
 virulence associated protein C
 bifunctional acetyltransferase-isomerase (wxcM)
 methyltransferase type
 methyltransferase type
 putative acyltransferase, putative
 -deoxy-D-xylulose-
 pyrophosphatase PpaX
 lipopolysaccharide biosynthesis protein
 putative glycosyltransferase
 membrane protein, putative
 capsular polysaccharide biosynthesis protein
 lipopolysaccharide biosynthesis, putative
 VI polysaccharide biosynthesis protein VipA-tviB
 alpha-D-QuiNA alpha-
 UDP-glucose
 undecaprenyl-phosphate galactose phosphotransferase
 polysaccharide biosynthesis protein CapD
 ATPase
 polysaccharide biosynthesis-export protein
 DHH superfamily protein, subfamily
 histidine triad
 glyceraldehyde-
 phosphoglycerate kinase (pgk)
 Myo-inositol catabolism protein IolE
 probable malonic semialdehyde oxidase decarboxylase
 myo-inositol catabolism protein
 xylose isomerase domain protein TIM barrel
 D-ribose-binding periplasmic protein
 catabolite control protein
 N-carbamyl-L-cysteine amidohydrolase
 binding-protein-dependent transport systems inner membrane component
 binding-protein-dependent transport systems inner membrane component
 taurine import ATP-binding protein TauB
 extracellular ligand-binding receptor
 inner-membrane translocator
 high-affinity branched chain amino acid ABC transporter, permease protein
 high affinity branched-chain amino acid ABC transporter, ATP-binding protein
 high-affinity branched-chain amino acid transport ATP-binding protein livF (LIV-I protein F)
 nitroreductase
 branched-chain amino acid transport ATP-binding protein LivG
 high affinity branched-chain amino acid ABC transporter, ATP-binding protein
 inner-membrane translocator, putative
 inner-membrane translocator, putative
 receptor family ligand binding region
 fatty acyl-CoA hydrolase, medium chain (Thioesterase B)
 ggdef domain protein

D-serine ammonia-lyase(dsdA)
 phosphoenolpyruvate-protein phosphotransferase(ptsP)
 phosphocarrier protein HPr(Histidine-containing protein)
 lichenan-specific phosphotransferase enzyme iia component(ptssystem lichenan-specific eii component)(eiiA-lic)(eiii-lic)
 lichenan-specific phosphotransferase enzyme iib component(ptssystem lichenan-specific eii component)(eiiB-lic)
 PTS system, IIC component
 beta-glucosidase(Gentiobiase)(Cellobiase)(Beta-D-glucoside glucohydrolase)(Amygdalase)
 anaerobic dimethylsulfoxide reductase chain A(dmsoreductase)
 putative Xaa-Pro amino peptidase
 acyl-coenzyme A:
 uroporphyrinogen decarboxylase, putative
 oligopeptide transport ATP-binding protein AppF
 dipeptide transport ATP-binding protein DppD
 oligopeptide transport system permease protein AppC
 binding-protein-dependent transport systems inner membrane component
 extracellular solute-binding protein, family
 methyl-accepting chemotaxis protein
 methyl-accepting chemotaxis protein
 ribonuclease P protein component(rnpA)
 NAD-dependent deacetylase(Regulatory protein SIR)
 sirohydrochlorin cobalt chelatase
 TonB-dependent receptor, putative
 cobalamin biosynthesis protein CbiD(cbiD)
 CbiG
 precorrin-
 threonine-phosphate decarboxylase(cobD)
 cobalt-precorrin-
 HmuU protein
 ferric enterobactin transport ATP-binding protein FepC
 cobyrinic acid synthase CobQ(cobQ)
 nitrogen fixation protein NifH-NifE
 oxidoreductase-nitrogenase, component
 bifunctional adenosylcobalamin biosynthesis protein CobP
 AcrB family membrane transport protein, putative
 TonB-dependent receptor plug domain protein
 efflux transporter, RND family, MFP subunit
 outer membrane efflux protein
 lipolytic enzyme, gdsLD domain
 listeria-Bacteroides repeat domain(List_Bact_rpt) family
 fic family protein
 the glug motif domain protein
 heavy metal transport-detoxification protein
 tripartite carboxylate transporter, dctM subunit
 tripartite ATP-independent periplasmic transporter, DctQ component, putative
 transcriptional regulator, GntR family
 oxidoreductase
 virulence-associated protein, putative
 oligoendopeptidase, PepF-M
 MutT-nudix family protein, putative

ferrous iron transport protein B
 cystathionine gamma-lyase (Gamma-cystathionase) (Probasin-related antigen) (PRB-RA)
 RRF
 glycosyltransferase family
 OmpA family protein
 transcriptional Regulator, LacI family
 sugarkinase, fggy family
 iron ABC transporters substrate-binding protein
 spermidine-putrescine ABC transporter ATP-binding subunit
 inositol-
 aspartyl-glutamyl-tRNA (Asn-Gln) amidotransferase subunit B (Asp-Glu-ADT subunit B), putative
 ABC transporter peptide-binding protein, putative
 glutathione transport system permease protein GsiD
 oligopeptide transport ATP-binding protein OppD
 oligopeptide transport ATP-binding protein AppF
 radical SAM domain protein
 radical SAM domain protein
 radical SAM domain protein
 anti-anti-sigma factor
 PAS
 inner membrane ABC transporter permease protein YddR
 oligopeptide transport ATP-binding protein OppD
 oligopeptide transport ATP-binding protein AppF
 dipeptide-binding protein
 creatininase
 aldo-ketoreductase
 -methylthioadenosine-S-adenosylhomocysteine deaminase (MTA-SAH deaminase), putative
 amino acid ABC transporter, periplasmic amino acid-binding protein, putative
 glutamine transport ATP-binding protein GlnQ
 galactoside transport system permease protein MglC
 mate efflux family protein
 RRF
 nitroreductase
 outer membrane autotransporter barrel domain, putative
 uroporphyrinogen decarboxylase
 RNA-binding protein
 multiphosphoryl transfer protein
 ABC transporter component A
 cell surface protein
 glyoxalase domain-containing protein
 ATPase associated with various cellular activities, AAA_
 small GTP-binding protein
 type I site-specific deoxyribonuclease
 type I restriction-modification system S subunit
 type I restriction modification system M subunit
 thermostable carboxypeptidase
 D-methionine transport system permease protein MetI
 methionine import ATP-binding protein MetN
 D-methionine-binding lipoprotein MetQ

cystathionine gamma-synthase (CGS) (O-succinylhomoserine (thiol)-lyase)
 lipoprotein, putative
 pyridoxamine
 zinc transporter, ZIP family
 sensory transduction histidine kinase
 GH
 tripartite carboxylate transporter, dctm subunit
 filamentous haemagglutinin family outer membrane protein, putative
 surface antigen BspA, putative
 transposase
 acetyltransferase, gnat family
 RNA polymerase beta-subunit
 sugar-phosphate nucleotidyltransferase
 DNA repair protein RadC
 AAA ATPase
 transcriptional regulator, putative
 protein of unknown function
 DNA polymerase III, alpha subunit
 plasmid partition protein, putative
 multi-sensor hybrid histidine kinase
 oligopeptide transport ATP-binding protein AppF
 oligopeptide transport ATP-binding protein AppD
 probable peptide ABC transporter permease protein YnfY
 glutathione transport system permease protein GsiD
 bacterial extracellular solute-binding protein, family
 pyrrolidone-carboxylate peptidase
 probable L-aspartate dehydrogenase
 peptidase M
 leucine-rich repeat domain protein
 glutamine transport ATP-binding protein GlnQ
 glutamine ABC transporter, permease-substrate-binding protein
 polar amino acid ABC transporter, inner membrane subunit
 phospho-
 amidohydrolase family protein
 domain of unknown function, putative
 ggdef-eal-pas-pac-domain containing protein
 lipoprotein, putative
 transposase, IS
 transposase, Mutator family
 transcriptional regulator, BadM-Rrf
 putative NADH dehydrogenase-nad(p) h nitroreductase
 lipoprotein, putative
 ThlR, HTH transcriptional regulator TetR-AcrR family
 thiol peroxidase
 major membrane immunogen
 sensory box histidine kinase-response regulator
 membrane protein, GPR
 CrcB protein, putative
 outer membrane protein

hypotheticalcytosolicprotein
 crispr-associatedrampprotein,Csm
 crispr-associatedprotein,family,putative
 plasmidstabilityprotein,putative
 TonBfamilyC-domainprotein
 proteinofunknownfunction
 Igdomainprotein,group
 lipoprotein,putative
 lipoprotein,putative
 methyltransferasetype
 cobalaminsynthesisprotein,P
 ABCtransporter,ATP-bindingprotein
 transcriptionalregulator,MarRfamily
 addictionmoduleantidoteprotein,HigAfamily,putative
 methioninegamma-lyase(L-methioninase)
 transcriptionalregulator
 lipoprotein,putative
 aminoglycosideadenyltransferase
 putativeNADHdehydrogenase-nad(p)hnitroreductase
 mateeffluxfamilyprotein
 membraneprotein,Bmpfamily
 sensorproteinGacS
 hybridsensorykinase
 adenylatecyclase
 sensorproteinGacS
 sensoryboxhistidinekinase-responseregulator
 adenylate-guanylatecyclasecatalyticdomainprotein
 acetyl-CoAcarboxylase,carboxyltransferase,alphasubunit(accA)
 acetyl-CoAcarboxylase,carboxyltransferase,betasubunit(accD)
 acetyl-CoAcarboxylase,biotincarboxylcarrierprotein
 membraneprotein,putative
 membraneprotein,putative
 aminobenzoyl-glutamateutilizationproteinB
 citrate lyase,alphasubunit(citF)
 citrate(pro-
 meioticexpressionup-regulatedprotein
 vonWillebrandfactor,typeA,putative
 lipoprotein,putative
 aminobenzoyl-glutamateutilizationproteinB
 methylaspartatamutase,Ssubunit(mamA)
 MutLprotein
 methylaspartatamutase,esubunit
 methylaspartateammonia-lyase
 putativemethyltransferaseCmuC
 tripartiteATP-independentperiplasmictransporter,DctQcomponent,putative
 APendonuclease,family
 SalB
 catechol2,3-dioxygenase
 binding-protein-dependenttransportsystemsinnermembranecomponent

ABC transporter, ATP-binding protein
 para-nitroBenzylesterase(pnb carboxy-esterase)(intracellular esteraseb)(pnbce)
 para-nitroBenzylesterase(pnb carboxy-esterase)(intracellular esteraseb)(pnbce)
 NAD⁺ synthetase
 probable extracellular nuclease
 transcriptional regulator
 ABC-type amino acid transport-signal transduction system, periplasmic component-domain
 HAD-superfamily hydrolase, subfamily IIB
 protein UshA
 MutL protein
 D-ornithine aminomutase S component
 pyridoxal-
 dihydrodipicolinate reductase
 alanine racemase, N-domain protein
 ribosomal large subunit pseudouridine synthase D (rluD)
 transglutaminase domain protein
 ABC-type multidrug-protein-lipid transport system, ATPase component
 prepilin-type N-cleavage-methylation domain protein
 peptidase, A
 putative Ig domain family
 Cof family protein
 probable extracellular nuclease, putative
 addiction module antidote protein, HigA family (higA)
 PilT protein domain protein, putative
 tetratricopeptide repeat domain protein
 tetratricopeptide repeat domain protein
 HAD-superfamily hydrolase
 macrolide export ATP-binding-permease protein MacB
 efflux transporter, RND family, MFP subunit
 helix-turn-helix domain protein
 transposase, Mutator family
 ISPsy
 lipoprotein, putative
 bacterial extracellular solute-binding protein, putative
 sugar ABC transporter permease
 high-affinity iron permease
 kDa membrane antigen (Pathogen-specific membrane antigen)
 membrane protein, putative
 ABC transporter permease protein
 permease domain protein
 macrolide export ATP-binding-permease protein MacB
 kDa lipoprotein
 parallel beta-helix repeat
 outer membrane autotransporter barrel domain
 spermidine-putrescine ABC transporter ATP-binding subunit
 addiction module toxin, RelE-StbE family, putative
 ribosomal protein S
 phosphoesterase PHP domain protein, putative
 ABC transporter permease protein

transcriptionalregulator,putative
transcriptionalregulator,AraCfamilyprotein
riboseimportATP-bindingproteinRbsA
ribosetransportsystempermeaseproteinRbsC
probablesugarABCtransporter,substrate-bindingprotein,putative
hypotheticalABCtransporterperiplasmicsolute-bindingprotein
ABCtransporter,permeaseprotein
tobedomainfamily
proteinAdeh_
membraneprotein,putative
vanillate:corrinoideproteinmethyltransferase
transporter,majorfacilitatorfamily
veratrol:corrinoideproteinmethyltransferase,putative
transcriptionalregulator,LysRfamily,putative
cobalaminsynthesisprotein,P
putativeaminoacidtransporter
ferredoxin,putative
mateeffluxfamilyprotein
NADPH-dependentfmnreductase,putative
carboxylesterasefamily
para-nitroBenzylesterase(pnbcarboxy-esterase)(intracellularesteraseb)(pnbce)
dihydroxy-aciddehydratase(DAD)
oxidoreductaseYdhF
sugarABCtransporterpermease
beta-galactosidase
GntRdomainprotein
glycosyltransferasefamily
stageIIsporulationproteinE(SpoIIE)
stageIIsporulationproteinE(SpoIIE)
signaltransductionhistidinekinase
methyl-acceptingchemotaxisprotein
macrolideexportATP-binding-permeaseproteinMacB
ABCtransporter,permeaseprotein
heminimportATP-bindingproteinHmuV
HmuUpotein
trapdicarboxylatetransporter-dctpsubunit,putative
plasmidstabilizationsystemantitoxinprotein
ABCtransporter,ATP-bindingprotein
transcriptionalregulator,Crp-Fnrfamily
sulfitereductase,subunitA(asrA)
sulfitereductase,subunitC(asrC)
responseregulatorreceivermodulatedmetaldependentphosphohydrolase
methyl-acceptingchemotaxisprotein
bacteriaextracellularsolute-bindingprotein,putative
transcriptionalregulator,LuxRfamilyprotein
hybridsensorykinase
proteintyrosine-serinephosphatase
lipoprotein,putative
tetratricopeptiderepeatdomainprotein

bacterial extracellular solute-binding proteins, family
 putative D-aminoacylase
 X-Pro dipeptidase
 oligopeptide transport ATP-binding protein AppF
 oligopeptide transport ATP-binding protein AppD
 ATPase
 putative sucrose phosphorylase (sucrose glucosyltransferase)
 hypothetical cytosolic protein
 protein of unknown function
 UvrD-RE helicase, putative
 AAA ATPase, putative
 RNA polymerase sigma factor RpoD (Sigma-A) (Sigma-XylR)
 signal transduction histidine kinase, putative
 surface antigen BspA
 PAS
 flagellar filament
 NADPH-dependent FMN reductase, putative
 ABC transporter peptide-binding protein
 glutathione ABC transporter, permease protein (GsiC)
 glutathione transport system permease protein GsiD
 oligopeptide transport ATP-binding protein OppD
 oligopeptide transport ATP-binding protein AppF
 cobalamin synthesis protein-P
 veratrol:corrinoid protein methyltransferase
 transcriptional regulator, MerR family
 putative ribokinase
 hypothetical ABC transporter periplasmic solute-binding protein
 to be domain family
 binding-protein-dependent transport systems inner membrane component
 HAD superfamily hydrolase, subfamily 1A, variant
 hydrolase
 PHP domain, putative
 sensory box sensor histidine kinase-response regulator
 sensor protein GacS
 HAD superfamily hydrolase
 glycosyltransferase group
 membrane protein, putative
 sugar ABC transporter, putative
 transcriptional regulator, LuxR family protein
 caudovirus prohead protease, putative
 endonuclease and methylase LlaGI
 peptidase, S
 DNA-directed DNA polymerase
 UvrD-RE helicase, putative
 binding-protein-dependent transport systems inner membrane component, putative
 transposase, Mutator family
 mutt-nudix family protein
 multi-sensor Hybrid Histidine Kinase

multi-sensor hybrid histidine kinase, putative
 DNA polymerase IV (dinB)
 MutT-nudix family protein (mutT)
 lipoprotein, putative
 phage capsid family, putative
 phage portal protein
 phage terminase, large subunit, pbsx family
 transcriptional regulator, AlpA family
 fibroin
 OmpA
 the glucanase domain protein
 nucleoside transferase substrate binding protein like
 oligopeptide transport ATP-binding protein AppF
 dipeptide transport ATP-binding protein DppD
 oligopeptide transport system permease protein AppB
 lipoprotein, putative
 radical SAM domain protein
 radical SAM domain protein
 lipoprotein, putative
 radical SAM domain protein
 lipoprotein, putative
 transposase, Mutator family
 ISSod
 transposase, Mutator family
 transposase, mutator family
 transcriptional regulator, TetR family
 iron-sulfur cluster-binding protein
 SMI
 probable NADPH:quinone oxidoreductase
 caenorhabditis protein of unknown function
 phage transcriptional regulator, AlpA
 phage
 glycoprotein G
 transposase, Mutator family
 putative transcriptional regulator
 protein of unknown function
 halomucin
 multi-sensor Hybrid Histidine Kinase
 transcriptional regulator, LuxR family protein
 bacterial extracellular solute-binding protein, putative
 methylphosphotriester-DNA alkyltransferase
 membrane protein
 nlp lipoprotein
 D-methionine transport system permease protein MetI
 lipoprotein, putative
 MutT-nudix family protein (mutT)
 dTDP-
 paratuberculin synthase
 glycosyltransferase, group

proteincontainingnucleotide-diphospho-sugartransferasedomain
 UDP-glucuronicaciddecarboxylase
 transposase,Mutatorfamily
 glycosyltransferasegroup
 innermembraneprotein
 innermembraneprotein
 two-componentssystemhybridsensorhistidinekinase-responseregulatorprotein
 endoglucanaseM(EGM)(Endo-
 oligopeptidettransportATP-bindingproteinAppF
 dipeptidettransportATP-bindingproteinDppD
 glutathionetransportsystempermeaseproteinGsiD
 binding-protein-dependenttransportsystemsinnermembranecomponent
 putativedipeptide-bindingabctransporterprotein
 putativeABCtransportercomponent
 adenylate-guanylatecyclasecatalyticdomainprotein
 probableextracellularnuclease,putative
 lipoprotein,putative
 domainprotein
 lipoprotein,putative
 prolipoproteindiacylglyceryltransferase
 membraneprotein,putative
 lipoprotein,putative
 YheOdomainprotein
 glycosylhydrolase,family
 TPRrepeat
 glycosyltransferase,family
 O-antigenexportsystempermeaseproteinRfbA
 teichoicacidsexportATP-bindingproteinTagH(Teichoicacid-transportingATPase)
 citrateliaseligaseC-domainprotein
 citrateliaseligaseC-domainprotein
 citrateliaseligaseC-domainprotein
 citrateliaseligaseC-domainprotein
 coiled-coildomaincontaining
 transcriptionalRegulator,XREfamily
 exopolygalacturonatylase,putative
 MDR-typeABCtransporter
 ABC-typemultidrug-protein-lipidtransportsystem,ATPasecomponent
 ATPasefamilyassociatedwithvariouscellularactivities(AAA)protein
 transcriptionalregulator,MarRfamily
 RRF
 effluxtransporter,RNDfamily,MFPsubunit
 acriflavinresistanceprotein,putative
 outermembraneeffluxprotein
 lipoprotein,putative
 excisionase-Xis,DNA-binding
 transposase,putative
 putative restriction enzyme hindviip protein(m.hindviip)
 divergentAAAATPase
 restrictionmodificationsystemDNAspecificitydomain

putative type I restriction enzyme Hindviipr protein
 HD family hydrolase, diverged
 NADPH-dependent FMN reductase
 tetratricopeptide repeat domain protein
 tetratricopeptide repeat domain protein
 fibronectin type III domain protein
 probable extracellular nuclease, putative
 fibronectin type III domain protein
 regulatory protein, ArsR
 positive regulator of sigma E, RseC-MucC, putative
 mate efflux family protein
 lipoprotein, putative
 transcriptional regulator
 hypothetical cytosolic protein
 lipoprotein, putative
 chondroitin sulfate-heparin utilization regulation protein
 carboxymethylenebutenolidase
 -isopropylmalate synthase (Alpha-isopropylmalate synthase) (Alpha-IPMSynthetase)
 glutamine amidotransferase class-I
 transcriptional regulator, NifA subfamily, Fis family
 cobalamin synthesis protein CobW
 transporter, major facilitator family
 methionine synthase
 MmoS
 methionine synthase
 domain protein
 PadR
 aldo-keto reductase
 aldo-keto reductase
 lipoprotein, putative
 antibiotic biosynthesis monooxygenase domain protein
 phospholipase-carboxylesterase family
 methyl-accepting chemotaxis protein
 phosphoenolpyruvate-protein phosphotransferase (ptsP)
 '-Nucleotidase domain protein, putative
 phosphoglycerate mutase family protein
 YcsE
 transcriptional antiterminator, BglG
 cyclic nucleotide-binding protein
 pts system mannitol-specific eiicba component (eiicba-mtl) (eii-mtl)
 HTH domain family
 phosphocarrier protein HPr (Histidine-containing protein)
 pts system mannitol-specific eiicba component (eiicba-mtl) (eii-mtl)
 Mcp-
 binding-protein-dependent transport systems inner membrane component
 binding-protein-dependent transport systems inner membrane component
 PfkB domain protein
 uroporphyrinogen decarboxylase (URO-D) superfamily
 methyltransferase type

Xaa-Hisdipeptidase
 oligopeptideABCtransportersubstrate-bindingprotein
 oligopeptideABCtransportersubstrate-bindingprotein
 oligopeptidetransportsystempermeaseproteinAppB
 dipeptidettransportATP-bindingproteinDppD
 oligopeptidettransportATP-bindingproteinAppF
 extracellularsolute-bindingprotein,family
 -carboxyhexanoate--CoAligase(bioW)
 Hptsensorhybridhistidinekinase
 L-cystinetransportsystempermeaseproteinTcyB
 probableamino-acidABCtransporter,substrate-bindingprotein
 L-cystineimportATP-bindingproteinTcyN
 activatorof(R)-
 molybdopterin-guaninedinucleotidebiosynthesisproteinA
 ironhydrogenase
 proteinAegA
 phenylacetylCoA
 formatedehydrogenase,alphasubunit(fdhA)
 proteinT
 RecF-RecN-SMCNdomain,putative
 ferredoxin
 cobalttransportpermease,CbiQfamily,putative
 cobaltimportATP-bindingproteinCbiO
 flagellarmotorswitchproteinFliM(fliM)
 lipoprotein,putative
 PINdomaincontainingprotein
 PAS-PACsensorhybridhistidinekinase
 twocomponenttranscriptionalregulator,LuxRfamily
 tetratricopeptideTPR_
 lipoprotein,putative
 lipoprotein,putative
 lipoprotein,putative
 probableextracellularnuclease,putative
 lipoprotein,putative
 multi-sensorhybridhistidinekinase
 cyclasefamilyprotein
 bacterialpre-peptidaseC-domainfamily
 YbaK-ebcCprotein(ybaK)
 mureinhydrolaseexporter
 LrgBfamilyprotein
 rubredoxin,putative
 withinP.aerophilum
 nickelimportATP-bindingproteinNikE
 oligopeptide-dipeptideABCtransporter,ATP-bindingprotein
 binding-protein-dependenttransportsystemsinnermembranecomponent
 binding-protein-dependenttransportsystemsinnermembranecomponent
 peptide-opine-nickelABCtransporter
 ferrichrometransportATP-bindingproteinFhuC
 transportsystempermeaseprotein

ABC-typeFe
 FwdEfamilyprotein
 iron(III)dicitratetransportATP-bindingproteinFecE
 transportsystempermeaseprotein
 periplasmicbindingprotein
 ubiquinone-menaquinonebiosynthesismethyltransferaseUbiE
 methyltransferasetype
 transcriptionalregulator,putative
 DNApolymeraseIIsubunitalpha
 glutathioneimportATP-bindingproteinGsiA
 hydrogenase
 NAD-dependentformatedehydrogenasebetasubunit
 peroxiredoxinHyr
 permease
 RelA-SpoTdomainprotein
 chaperoneproteinDnaK(Heatshockprotein
 molecularchaperone,DnaJfamily
 Zn-fingercontainingprotein
 transcriptionalregulator,LysRfamily
 aconitasefamily(aconitatehydratase)
 citratetransportersuperfamily
 bacterialcapsulesynthesisproteinPGA_cap
 L-cystineimportATP-bindingproteinTcyN
 ABC-typeaminoacidtransportsystem,permeasecomponent
 bacteriaextracellularsolute-bindingprotein,family
 antibioticbiosynthesismonooxygenase
 ABC-typeaminoacidtransportsystem,permeasecomponent
 ABC-typeaminoacidtransportsystem,permeasecomponent
 ExpA
 two-componentsystemsensorkinase
 peptidase,M
 OmpAfamilyprotein
 lipoprotein,putative
 cobalaminB
 transcriptionalregulator,AraCfamilyprotein
 transcriptionalregulator,putative
 sperm-activatingpeptidesfamily
 virulencegenerepressorRsaL
 PINdomainprotein
 prevent-host-deathfamilyprotein,putative
 pirindomainprotein
 DNApolymerase,betadomainproteinregion
 hydroxylaminereductase(hcp)
 transcriptionalregulator
 lipoprotein,putative
 lipoprotein,putative
 hybridsensorykinase
 Nif-specificregulatoryprotein(nifA)
 HicB

deoxyribonuclease,TatDfamily
 heavymetaltranslocatingP-typeATPase
 heavymetaltranslocatingP-typeATPase
 nitrogenaseironprotein(nifH)
 probablepeptideABCtransporterpermeaseproteiny
 glutathioneimportATP-bindingproteinGsiA
 high-affinitynickel-transporter
 carbonmonoxidedehydrogenaseaccessoryproteinCooC
 extracellularsolute-bindingprotein,family
 putativehelix-turn-helixprotein
 AsnCfamilytranscriptionalregulator
 transcriptionalregulator,LysRfamily,putative
 '-Nucleotidasedomainprotein,putative
 transporter,majorfacilitatorfamily
 vanillate:corrinoideproteinmethyltransferase
 nitroreductase
 lipoprotein,putative
 probableextracellularnuclease,putative
 two-componentresponse regulator
 ferricuptakeregulator,Furfamily
 nitroreductase
 polymorphicoutermembraneprotein,putative
 RNAPolymerasesigmafactorRpoD(Sigma-
 HmuUprotein
 heminimportATP-bindingproteinHmuV
 periplasmicbindingprotein
 TfoXN-domainsuperfamily
 carboxymuconolactonedecarboxylase
 transposase,mutatorfamily
 aspartyl-tRNA synthetase(Aspartate--tRNA ligase)(AspRS)
 transportergatedomainprotein
 transcriptionalregulator
 lipoprotein,putative
 oligopeptidettransportATP-bindingproteinOppD
 oligopeptidettransportATP-bindingproteinAppF
 isochorismatasefamilyprotein
 transcriptionalregulator,MerRfamily
 carboxymuconolactonedecarboxylase
 serine-threonine-proteinkinase
 PINdomainprotein
 DnaJdomainprotein
 transposase,Mutatorfamily
 transposaseTpnA
 peptidase,S
 dnamethylase-typeIrestriction-modificationsystem
 ATPaseoftheAAA+class
 ATPaseoftheAAA+class
 NADH-ubiquinoneoxidoreductasechain
 transcriptionalregulator,TetRfamily

Xaa-Proaminopeptidase
 thiamineSprotein
 cellulose-binding,familyII
 polysaccharidebiosynthesis-exportdomainprotein,putative
 lipopolysaccharidebiosynthesisprotein,putative
 thiogalactosideacetyltransferase
 proteincontainingnucleotide-diphospho-sugartransferasedomain
 putativesugartransferase
 UDP-glucose
 epimerase-dehydratase,putative
 putativeLPSbiosynthesisrelatedglycosyltransferase
 membraneprotein,putative
 filamentationinducedbycAMPproteinFic
 protein,withAweakD-galactaratedehydratase-altronatehydrolasedomain
 YwbO,putative
 indigoindinesynthaseAfamilyprotein
 kinase,PfkBfamily
 domainprotein
 peptidase,M
 hemerythrinfamilyprotein
 mateeffluxfamilyprotein,putative
 phageinfectionprotein
 metallo-beta-lactamasesuperfamilyhydrolase
 transcriptionalregulator,TetRfamily
 flavodoxin
 lipoprotein,putative
 PINdomainprotein
 lipoprotein,putative
 amidohydrolase
 membraneprotein,putative
 membraneprotein,putative
 TPRrepeat
 TPRrepeat
 TPRrepeat
 TPRrepeat
 flagellarbiosynthesisproteinFlhA
 exonuclease,putative
 Cl-channel,voltage-gatedfamilyprotein
 radicalSAMdomainprotein
 O-methyltransferase
 acyltransferase
 peptidaseS
***T. azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9**
 responseregulator
 biotincarboxylase
 ribosetransportsystempermeaseproteinRbsC
 riboseimportATP-bindingproteinRbsA
 L-rhamnose
 ferricuptakeregulator,Furfamily

activator of
 PilT protein domain protein
 prevent-host-death family protein
 isochorismatase hydrolase
 Smf protein
 domain protein
 transcriptional regulator, LuxR family protein
 domain protein
 transcriptional regulator, LuxR family protein
 sugar dehydrogenase, putative
 AP superfamily
 legionella virulence protein
 transposase IS
 outer membrane autotransporter barrel, putative
 probable extracellular nuclease, putative
 major membrane immunogen
 Zn-dependent alcohol dehydrogenase
 endo-arabinase
 helix-turn-helix-domain containing protein, AraC type
 extracellular solute-binding protein, family
 IstB domain protein ATP-binding protein
 IstB domain protein ATP-binding protein
 transcriptional regulator, LacI family
 L-fucose isomerase domain protein
 probable fructose-bisphosphate aldolase
 inositol
 probable malonic semialdehyde oxidase decarboxylase
 inositol dehydratase
 adenylate-guanylate cyclase
 transcriptional regulator
 probable insertion sequence transposase protein, IS
 transposase IS
 transposase, Mutator family
 tetratricopeptide repeat domain protein
 glucose-
 dsb oxidoreductase, putative
 tetratricopeptide repeat domain protein
 Pir domain protein
 integrated domain protein
 protein of unknown function DUF
 DNA-directed DNA polymerase, putative
 DNA polymerase III, alpha subunit
 mate efflux family protein
 AP endonuclease, family
 sporulation initiation inhibitor protein
 transposase IS
 TetR-family regulator
 adenylate-guanylate cyclase catalytic domain protein
 transcriptional regulator, ArsR family

arabinose operon protein AraM
 cyclic nucleotide-binding protein
 Trk system potassium uptake protein TrkH
 transposase, IS
 PIN domain protein
 transposase, Mutator family
 , putative
 TonB-dependent receptor
 cation ABC transporter, periplasmic binding protein, putative
 zinc import ATP-binding protein ZnuC
 methyl-accepting chemotaxis protein
 cationic outer membrane protein
 transposase, is
 integrase domain protein
 glutamine-binding periplasmic protein-glutamine transport system permease protein
 sensor protein GacS
 ATP-dependent helicase HrpB(hrpB)
 integrase domain protein
 phage capsid family
 domain protein
 CTP pyrophosphohydrolase
 PemK family protein
 transposase InsI for insertion sequence element IS
 glycosyltransferase
 glycosyltransferase, group
 CDP-Glycerol:Poly(glycerophosphate)glycerophosphotransferase family
 inner membrane protein
 glycosyltransferase, group
 CDP-alcohol phosphatidyltransferase family
 nitroreductase
 NADPH-dependent FMN reductase
 NAD-dependent epimerase-dehydratase
 adenylate kinase
 transposase, is
 tetratricopeptide repeat domain protein
 transposase IS
 ATPase associated with various cellular activities, AAA_
 swim zinc finger domain protein
 ankyrin
 tetratricopeptide repeat domain protein
 transcriptional regulator, TetR family, putative
 PAS
 ribose transport system permease protein RbsC
 ribose import ATP-binding protein RbsA
 mate efflux family protein
 radical SAM domain protein
 sensor protein GacS
 response regulator/receiver: Metal-dependent phosphohydrolase, HD subdomain
 transcriptional regulator, LuxR family protein

sensorproteinGacS
 outermembraneprotein
 PAS
 lipoate-proteinligaseA
 methyl-acceptingchemotaxisprotein(MCP)signalingdomain
 response regulator receiver: Metal-dependent phosphohydrolase, HD subdomain
 bacterial extracellular solute-binding protein, putative
 sugar transport system
 sugar ABC transporter, permease protein
 sugar phosphate isomerases-epimerases
 xylose isomerase domain protein TIM barrel, putative
 dehydrogenase
 binding-protein-dependent transport systems in inner membrane component
 L-arabinose ABC transport permease protein
 hexulose-
 transcriptional repressor of the ribose operon
 glyoxalase-bleomycin resistance protein-dioxygenase
 alpha-galactosidase (Melibiase)
 glucose--fructose oxidoreductase (gfor), putative
 ribose transport system permease protein RbsC
 ribose import ATP-binding protein RbsA
 haloacid dehalogenase domain protein hydrolase
 PfkB domain protein
 prolyl aminopeptidase
 L-fucose isomerase related protein
 chitinase
 protein of unknown function
 type III restriction enzyme, re subunit
 phage portal protein, HK
 site-specific recombinase, phage integrase family protein
 aldo-keto reductase
 oxidoreductase, aldo-keto reductase family
 integrase domain protein
 major facilitator family transporter, putative
 transcriptional regulator, TetR family protein
 fkbp-type
 aryl-alcohol dehydrogenase
 mate efflux family protein
 aspartyl-tRNA synthetase (aspS)
 metallophosphoesterase
 glycosyltransferases, putative
 glycosyltransferase, group
 fibronectin type III domain protein
 fibronectin type III domain protein
 TPR repeat, putative
 lipolytic protein G-D-S-L family
 mucin-desulfating sulfatase, putative
 membrane protein, putative
 glucan endo-

AlgI

glycosyltransferase,involved in cell wall biogenesis

CotH protein

fibronectin type III domain protein

sensory transduction histidine kinase

hemin import ATP-binding protein HmuV

transport system permease protein

HmuU protein

periplasmic binding protein

LcoC

-hydroxythreonine-

extracellular solute-binding protein, family

zinc finger protein

acetyl-CoA carboxylase, biotin carboxyl carrier protein (accB)

helix-turn-helix domain protein

cobalt transport protein

SfsA

tetratricopeptide TPR_

cystathionine gamma-synthase (CGS) (O-succinylhomoserine (thiol)-lyase)

transcriptional regulator, BadM-Rrf

extracellular ligand-binding receptor

HmgE

high-affinity branched chain amino acid ABC transporter, permease protein

high affinity branched-chain amino acid ABC transporter, ATP-binding protein

abc transporter, hydrophobic amino acid uptake transporter (haat) family, ATP-binding protein

polaramino acid ABC transporter, inner membrane subunit

polaramino acid ABC transporter, inner membrane subunit

glutamine transport ATP-binding protein GlnQ

helicase, Snf

aspartyl-glutamyl-tRNA (Asn-Gln) amidotransferase subunit B (Asp-Glu-ADT subunit B), putative

zinc transporter, ZIP family

PAS

ROK domain containing protein

ClcA

voltage-gated chloride channel

radical SAM domain protein

oxidoreductase

ferritin

OmpA family protein, putative

HmuU protein

TonB family protein

protein of unknown function

methyltransferase

cobalamin synthesis protein, P

ABC transporter, ATP-binding protein

methylcobamide:CoM methyltransferase MtbA (Methylcobamide:CoM methyltransferase II isozyme A) (MT

nitrogenase iron protein (nifH)

transposase, Mutator family

acetyltransferase, gnat family

RNA polymerase sigma-
 surface antigen BspA
 novel protein
 oxaloacetate decarboxylase, gamma subunit
 Rrf
 cytoplasmic filament protein A
 ferric uptake regulatory protein
 transcriptional regulator, AraC family protein
 ADP-ribosylglycohydrolase superfamily
 bacterial extracellular solute-binding protein
 binding-protein-dependent transport systems inner membrane component
 binding-protein-dependent transport systems inner membrane component
 regulatory protein LacI
 glutamate synthase [NADPH] small chain (nadh-gogAT)
 methionine gamma-lyase (L-methioninase)
 murein hydrolase export regulator
 LrgA family protein, putative
 response regulator/receiver: Metal-dependent phosphohydrolase, HD subdomain
 Hpt sensor hybrid histidine kinase
 AP endonuclease, family
 bacterial extracellular solute-binding protein, putative
 transcriptional regulator
 membrane protein, putative
 two component transcriptional regulator, LuxR family
 nitroreductase
 transcriptional regulator, MarR family, putative
 peroxiredoxin Hyr
 TPR domain containing protein
 translocase
 beta-lactamase
 transcriptional regulator, Cro-CI family, putative
 transcriptional regulator
 NifK
 oxidoreductase-nitrogenase, component
 nitrogenase iron protein
 aliphatic sulfonate import ATP-binding protein SsuB
 radical SAM domain protein
 phosphoadenosine phosphosulfate reductase
 GH
 TPR repeat protein
 tripartite carboxylate transporter, dctM subunit
 cell wall surface anchor family protein, putative
 oxidoreductase domain protein
 glucose-
 transcriptional regulator
 L-ribulokinase (araB)
 periplasmic binding protein-LacI transcriptional regulator, putative
 phosphate acetyltransferase (phosphotransacetylase)
 RNA polymerase sigma factor RpoD (rpoD)

isochorismatasehydrolase
 ferrousirontransportproteinA
 signaltransductionhistidine-proteinkinaseBarA
 extracellularsolute-bindingprotein,family
 L-arabinoasetransportsystempermeaseproteinAraP
 antibioticbiosynthesismonooxygenasedomainprotein
 PAS
 two-componentsystemsensory-regulatoryprotein
 mateeffluxfamilyprotein,putative
 transcriptionalregulator,TetRfamily
 uroporphyrinogendecarboxylase(URO-D)superfamily
 transcriptionalregulator
 transcriptionalregulator,ArsRfamily
 DNA-bindingprotein
 phagemajorcapsidprotein,HK
 transcriptionalregulator
 transposaseandinactivatedderivatives
 membraneprotein,putative
 integratedomainprotein
 macrolideexportATP-binding-permeaseproteinMacB
 ABCtransporter,permeaseprotein
 -hexulose-
 dihydropteridinereductase
 fggyfamilyofcarbohydratekinases,domainprotein
 proteinofunknownfunction
 deathoncuringprotein,putative
 HDdomainprotein
 metaldependentphosphohydrolase
 D-mannanateoxidoreductase(Fructuronatereductase)
 extracellularsolute-bindingprotein,family
 binding-protein-dependenttransportsystemsinnermembranecomponent
 oligopeptidetransportATP-bindingproteinOppD
 riboseimportATP-bindingproteinRbsA
 periplasmicsugar-bindingproteins
 integratedomainprotein
 periplasmicbindingproteinsandsugarbindingdomainoftheLacIfamily,putative
 extracellularsolute-bindingproteinfamily
 sugarABCtransporterpermease
 sugarABCtransporterpermease
 methyl-acceptingchemotaxisprotein
 multi-sensorhybridhistidinekinase
 sensorytransductionhistidinekinase
 -oxoacyl-acyl-carrier-protein]reductase(
 integratedomainprotein
 ribose-
 sugarABCtransporter,permeaseprotein
 extracellularsolute-bindingprotein,family
 alpha-L-rhamnosidase
 regulatoryproteinLacI

ROKfamilyprotein
 extracellularsolute-bindingproteinfamily
 binding-protein-dependenttransportsystemsinnermembranecomponent
 binding-protein-dependenttransportsystemsinnermembranecomponent
 OmpAfamilyprotein
 polymorphicooutermembraneprotein
 bacterialextracellularsolute-bindingprotein,putative
 ABCtransporter,carbohydrateuptaketraporter-
 binding-protein-dependenttransportsystemsinnermembranecomponent
 innermembraneABCtransporterpermeaseproteinYcjP
 sensoryboxhistidinekinase-responseregulator
 ribonucleasePproteincomponent(rnpA)
 PAS
 ATPase
 bacterialpre-peptidaseC-domainfamily
 ATPase,AAAfamily,putative
 ABCsugartransporter,periplasmicligandbindingprotein
 PAS-PACsensorhybridhistidinekinase
 peptidase,M
 aquaporin
 diguanylatecyclase
 sensorproteinGacS
 membraneproteincontaining
 putativesignalingprotein
 beta-lactamase
 integralmembraneprotein
 HipAprotein,putative
 xyloseisomerasedomainproteinTIMbarrel
 rhomboidfamilyprotein
 transcriptionalregulator,GntRfamily
 tripartiteATP-independentperiplasmictransporter,DctQcomponent,putative
 trapdicarboxylatetransporter,dctmsubunit
 methyl-acceptingchemotaxisprotein
 polymorphicooutermembraneprotein
 nitrogenfixationproteinNifH-NifE
 oxidoreductase-nitrogenase,component
 bifunctionaladenosylcobalaminbiosynthesisproteinCobP
 methyltransferaseMtaA-CmuA
 methyltransferaseMtaA-CmuA
 transposase,Mutatorfamily
 putativeCelldivisionproteaseFtsHhomolog
 myo-inositolcatabolismprotein
 galactosidetransportsystempermeaseproteinMglC
 two-componenthybridprotein
 HAD-superfamilyhydrolase,subfamilyIA,variant
 multiplesugar-bindingtransportsystemmultiplesugar-bindingprotein,putative
 ribosetransportsystempermeaseproteinRbsC
 xyloseimportATP-bindingproteinXylG
 uroporphyrinogendecarboxylase(URO-D)superfamily

ATPase
 helix-turn-helix domain protein
 lactose transport system
 leucine-rich repeat domain protein
 binding-protein-dependent transport systems inner membrane component
 multi-sensor hybrid histidine kinase
 PIN domain protein
 ATPase
 integrated domain protein
 domain protein
 phosphoglycolate phosphatase (PGPase) (PGP), putative
 transcriptional regulator, GntR family
 Zn-dependent alcohol dehydrogenase
 transposase, Mutator family
 transposase, Mutator family
 transposase, Mutator family
 transposase for insertion sequence element ISrm
 transposase IS
 transposase IS
 peptidase M
 transposase, IS
 PIN domain protein
 multi-sensor hybrid histidine kinase
 putative transcriptional regulator
 multi-sensor hybrid histidine kinase
 spfh-band
 transposase for insertion sequence element ISrm
 transposase, Mutator family
 domain protein
 transcriptional regulator, XRE family
 domain protein
 phage terminase, small subunit, putative
 glutamine ABC transporters substrate-binding protein
 protease PrsW (Protease responsible for activating sigma-W)
 extracellular solute-binding protein family
 binding-protein-dependent transport systems inner membrane component
 response regulator/receiver protein
 oxidoreductase domain protein
 glucose-inhibited division protein A
 radical SAM domain protein
 periplasmic binding protein-LacI transcriptional regulator, putative
 insertion sequence putative ATP-binding protein (ORF)
 binding-protein-dependent transport systems inner membrane component
 response regulator/receiver protein
 xylose isomerase domain protein TIM barrel
 uroporphyrinogen decarboxylase
 PIN domain, putative
 two-component response regulator YesN
 bacterial extracellular solute-binding protein

methyl-acceptingchemotaxisproteinDmcB
 transcriptionalregulator,MarRfamily
 transposase,Mutatorfamily
 putativeDnaJhomologsubfamilyBmember
 metallo-beta-lactamasesuperfamilyprotein
 glycosidehydrolase,family
 YbaC
 transcriptionalregulator,TetRfamilyprotein
 innermembraneprotein
 innermembraneprotein
 oxidoreductasedomainprotein,putative
 sorbitoldehydrogenase(L-iditol
 isochorismatasehydrolase
 proteinofunknownfunction
 extracellularsolute-bindingproteinfamily
 binding-protein-dependenttransportsystemsinnermembranecomponent
 binding-protein-dependenttransportsystemsinnermembranecomponent
 ribosomalproteinS
 transposase,Mutatorfamily
 flavodoxin
 proteincontainingandDnaJdomain,putative
 phageshockproteinA,PspA
 anti-anti-sigmafactor
 chainN,ArchitectureOfMammalianFattyAcidSynthase
 Igdomainprotein,group
 repressor,putative
 proteinrelatedtomifh-dopdproteinfamily,functioninbacteriaisunknown,putative
 alpha-D-mannosidase
 transcriptionalregulator,putative
 sigma-
 signaltransductionhistidinekinase,nitrogenspecific,NtrB
 YkrA
 radicalSAMdomainprotein,putative
 transcriptionalregulator,DeoRfamily,putative
 crispr-associatedproteinCas
 crispr-associatedrampprotein,Cmr
 hydrolaseoftheHDSuperfamily
 crispr-associatedrampprotein,Cmr
 crispr-associatedprotein,Cmr
 crispr-associatedrampprotein,Cmr
 crispr-associatedprotein,family,putative
 transposaseIS
 kDalipoprotein
 permeasedomainprotein
 membraneprotein,putative
 kDamembraneantigen(Pathogen-specificmembraneantigen)
 high-affinityironpermease
 thymidylatesynthase(thyA)
 ABCtransporter,ATP-bindingprotein,MsbAfamily

amidohydrolase
 transcriptional regulator, AraC family protein
 ribulose-phosphate
 sorbitol dehydrogenase (L-iditol
 putative D-erythrulose-
 ROK domain containing protein
 putative oxidoreductase
 YurM
 sugar ABC transporter permease
 bacterial extracellular solute-binding protein, putative
 L-threonine
 sensory box histidine kinase-response regulator
 integrated domain protein
 fumarate reductase-succinate dehydrogenase flavoprotein domain protein
 FMN-binding domain protein
 binding-protein-dependent transport systems inner membrane component
 nitrate transport ATP-binding protein NrtD
 dgqhr domain, putative
 protein of unknown function
 transcriptional regulator, NifA subfamily, Fis family
 cobalt import ATP-binding protein CbiO
 transcriptional regulator, TrmB
 sugar transporters sugar binding protein
 ABC-type sugar transport systems, permease components
 sugar ABC transporter permease
 glutaminase
 multi-sensor hybrid histidine kinase
 protein R
 methyl-accepting chemotaxis protein
 spermidine-putrescine import ATP-binding protein PotA
 SoxR protein
 phospho-
 deoxyribose-phosphate aldolase (deoC)
 VanZ like protein
 domain of unknown function
 dTDP-
 CDP-abequose synthase
 WbyH
 putative paratransferase
 glycosyltransferase, putative
 EpsT
 glycosyltransferase, group
 membrane protein, putative
 putative rhamnosyltransferase
 EpsD
 GDP-mannose
 response regulator
 transcriptional regulator, TrmB
 alpha-N-arabinofuranosidase (Arabinosidase)

periplasmic binding protein
 binding-protein-dependent transport system inner membrane component
 binding-protein-dependent transport system inner membrane component
 oligopeptide transport ATP-binding protein AppF
 anti-anti-sigma factor
 hemolysin-
 peptidase M
 oxidoreductase domain protein
 transcriptional regulator, TetR family protein
 long-chain-fatty-acid--CoA ligase, putative
 HipAN-domain, putative
 domain protein
 NAD-dependent epimerase-dehydratase
 cell surface protein
 O-acetylhomoserine(thiol)-lyase(O-acetylhomoserine sulfhydrylase)(OAH sulfhydrylase)(Homocysteine synthase)
 cystathionine gamma-synthase(CGS)(O-succinylhomoserine(thiol)-lyase)
 D-methionine-binding lipoprotein MetQ
 methionine import ATP-binding protein MetN
 D-methionine transport system permease protein MetI
 hydrogenase-
 -isopropylmalate synthase(Alpha-isopropylmalate synthase)(Alpha-IPM synthetase)
 domain protein
 periplasmic molybdate-binding protein-domain
 oxidoreductase domain protein, putative
 transcriptional regulator, AraC family, putative
 probable Oxidoreductase, putative
 sulfatase, putative
 APendonuclease, family
 Hpt sensor hybrid histidine kinase
 response regulator, NarL-family
 membrane protein, putative
 bacterial extracellular solute-binding protein, putative
 transcriptional regulator, LuxR family protein
 transcriptional regulator, LuxR family
 listeria-Bacteroides repeat domain(List_Bact_rpt) family
 Ig domain protein group
 outer membrane autotransporter barrel domain, putative
 outer membrane autotransporter barrel, putative
 cell surface protein, putative
 cell surface protein, putative
 elongation factor Tu
 ribosomal protein L
 lactoylglutathione lyase
 sensor protein GacS
 transposase InsI for insertion sequence element IS
 ABC transporter, permease protein
 ABC transporter, ATP-binding protein
 L-serine dehydratase, iron-sulfur-dependent, beta subunit(sdaAB)
 PAS

membraneprotein,putative
 mateeffluxfamilyprotein
 phosphonatesimportATP-bindingproteinPhnC
 ROK,putative
 cobalaminB
 putativetranscriptionalregulator
 methylphosphotriester-DNAalkyltransferase
 methylated-dna--protein-cysteinemethyltransferase
 sorbosereductaseSOU
 mannosyltransferase
 polymorphicooutermembraneprotein,putative
 transcriptionalregulator,AraCfamily,putative
 oligopeptidettransportATP-bindingproteinAppD
 oligopeptidettransportsystempermeaseproteinAppC
 oligopeptidettransportATP-bindingproteinAppF
 alpha-galactosidase(Melibiose)
 trimethylaminecorrinoidprotein
 oxidoreductase
 proteinofunknownfunction
 two-componentssensorhistidinekinasewithresponseregulatorreceiverdomain
 D-methionineABCtransporter,periplasmicD-methionine-bindingprotein(metQ)
 purinenucleosidephosphorylase(deoD)
 peptidaseU
 sensorproteinGacS
 responseregulatorreceiverhybridhistidinekinase
 PASfoldfamily
 multi-sensorhybridhistidinekinase
 YbaK-ebcCprotein(ybaK)
 transporter,majorfacilitatorfamily
 nachtnucleosidetriphosphatase
 tetratricopeptiderepeatdomainprotein
 glutathioneperoxidase
 bacterialextracellularsolute-bindingprotein,putative
 binding-protein-dependenttransportsystemsinnermembranecomponent,putative
 sugarABCtransporterpermease
 penicillin-bindingprotein
 insertionsequenceputativeATP-bindingprotein(ORF)
 ribose
 dihydroxyacetonekinase,Lsubunit
 PTS-dependentdihydroxyacetonekinase,dihydroxyacetone-bindingsubunitDhaK
 glucose
 Zn-dependentalcoholdehydrogenase
 invasionproteinIbeA
 invasionproteinIbeA
 bacterialextracellularsolute-bindingprotein,putative
 ABCtransporter,permeaseprotein
 thiaminepyrophosphateenzyme,centraldomainfamily
 iron-containingalcoholdehydrogenase,putative
 methyl-acceptingchemotaxisprotein

tetratricopeptiderepeatdomainprotein
domainprotein
PilTprotein,putative


ferredoxin-like peptidestr. ZAS-1 str. ZAS-2 **catechol 2,3-dioxygenase**str. ZAS-1 str. ZAS-2 **2-hydroxymuconic semialdehyde hydrolase**str. ZAS-1 str. ZAS-2 **2-oxopent-4-enoate hydratase**str. ZAS-1 str. ZAS-2 **4-hydroxy-2-oxopentanoate aldolase**str. ZAS-1 str. ZAS-2 **acetaldehyde dehydrogenase**str. ZAS-1 str. ZAS-2 

Fig. 3A-1: PFAM domains and conserved functional residues and sequence motifs in *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 *meta*-cleavage pathway proteins. The primary structure span of *meta*-cleavage pathway proteins is represented by black lines, and PFAM domains within the *meta*-cleavage pathway proteins are represented by grey rectangles. Symbols representing conserved functional residues are centered over the location of the functional residues. Active site residues are represented by black inverted triangles, metal-binding residues are represented by white diamonds, residues contributing to protein structure are represented by light grey squares, and substrate-binding residues are represented by grey circles. Conserved sequence motifs are represented by white bars.

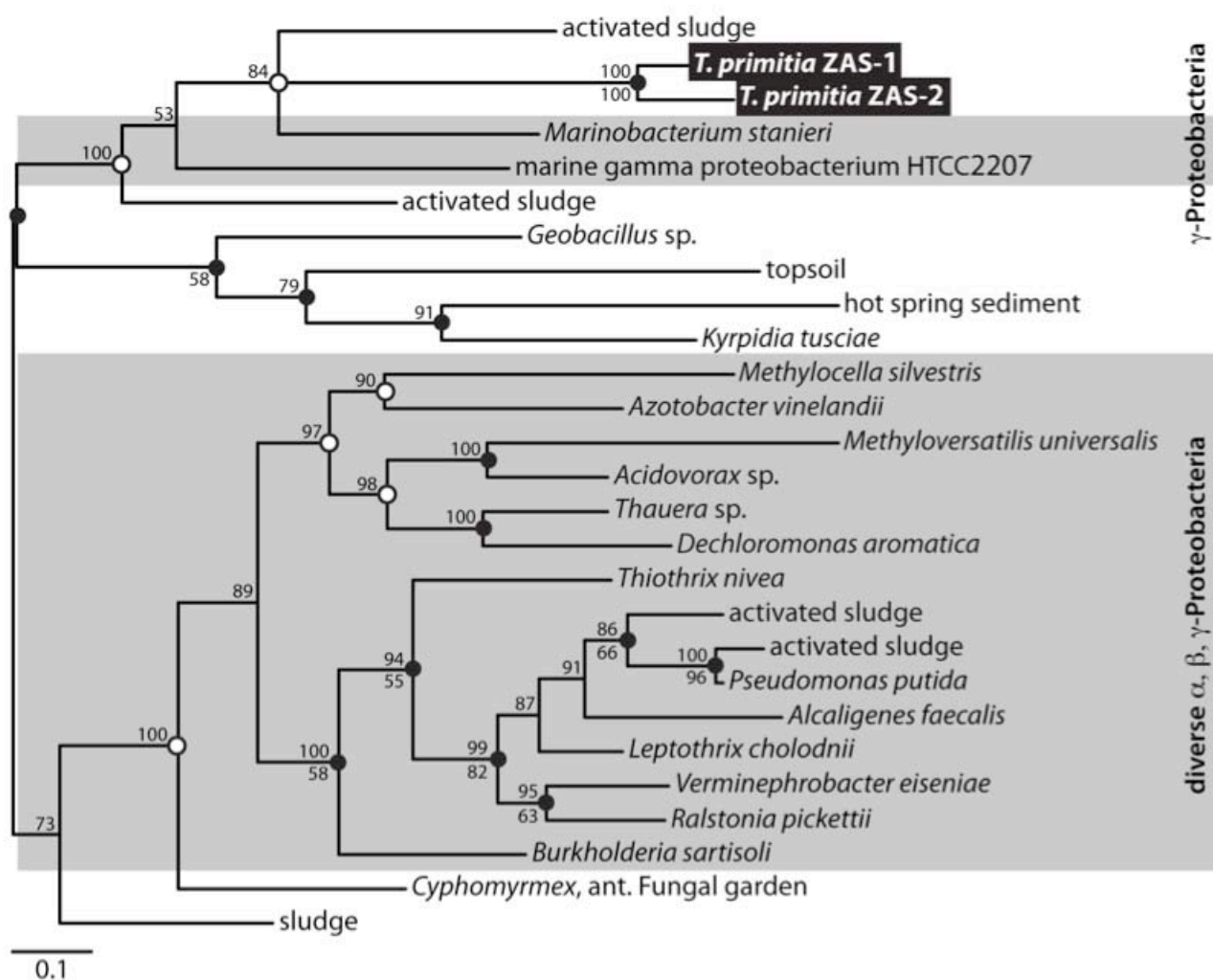


Fig. 3A-2: Phylogenetic position of *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 ferredoxin-like peptide (PF00111, Step 1'). Bayesian protein phylogenetic analysis (183 trees from 73,000 generations; PSRF = 1.001; average standard deviation of split frequencies = 0.011280) is based on 85 unambiguously aligned amino acid positions of a 98 amino acid-long protein. Bayes values (when greater than 50) are reported above the nodes. Phylip PROTPARS maximum parsimony support after analysis of 1000 bootstraps (when greater than 50%) is reported below nodes. Shaded circles (●) indicate nodes supported by both maximum parsimony and Fitch distance matrix methods. Open circles (○) indicate nodes supported by one of those methods. Scale bar indicates distance depicted as 0.1 amino acid changes per alignment position.

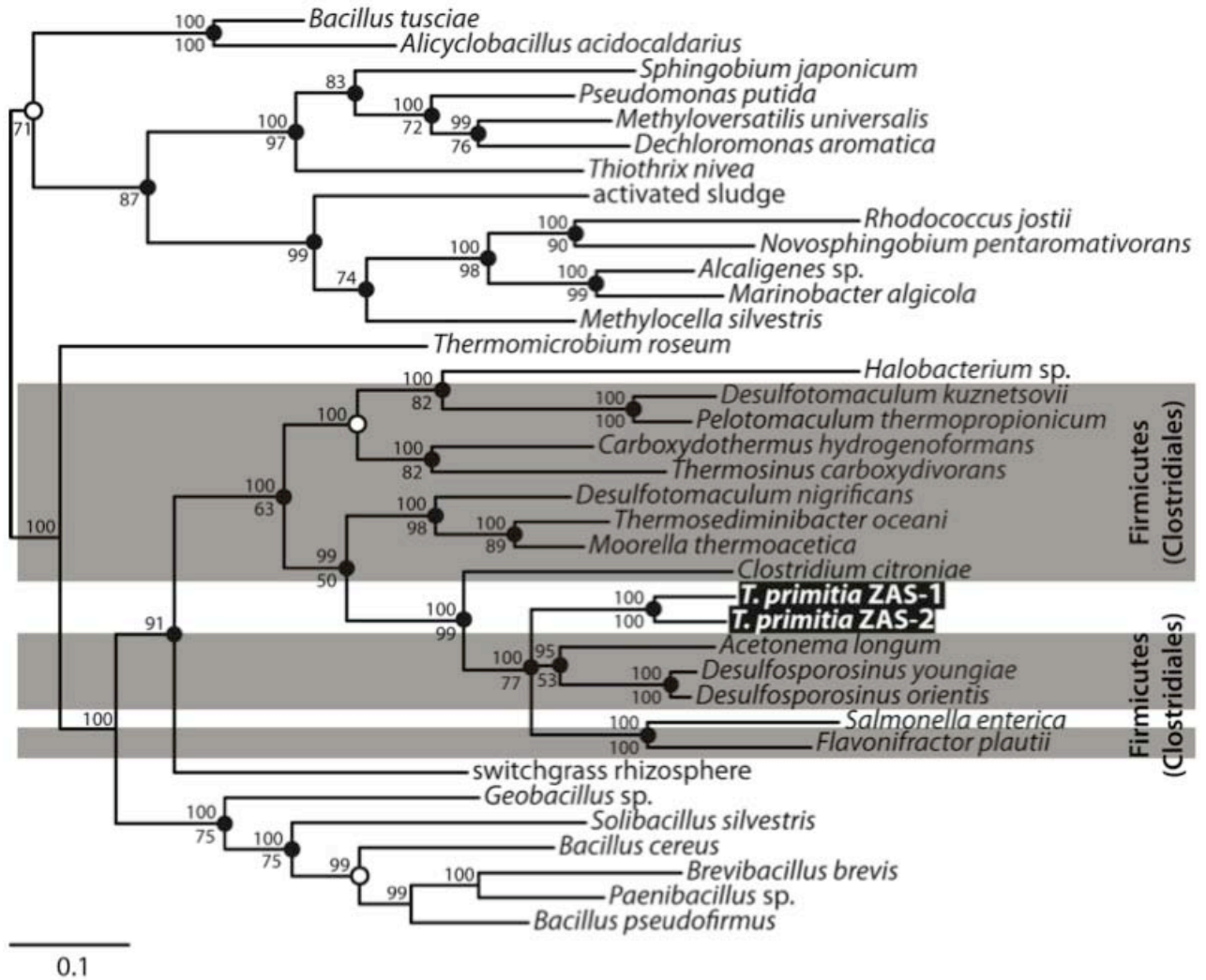


Fig. 3A-3: Phylogenetic position of *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 4-hydroxy-2-oxopentanoate aldolase (PF00682 and PF07836, Step 4). Bayesian protein phylogenetic analysis (375 trees from 150,000 generations; PSRF = 1.000; average standard deviation of split frequencies = 0.002661) is based on 331 unambiguously aligned amino acid positions of a 340 amino acid-long protein. Bayes values (when greater than 50) are reported above the nodes. Phylip PROTPARS maximum parsimony support after analysis of 1000 bootstraps (when greater than 50%) is reported below nodes. Shaded circles (●) indicate nodes supported by both maximum parsimony and Fitch distance matrix methods. Open circles (○) indicate nodes supported by one of those methods. Scale bar indicates distance depicted as 0.1 amino acid changes per alignment position.

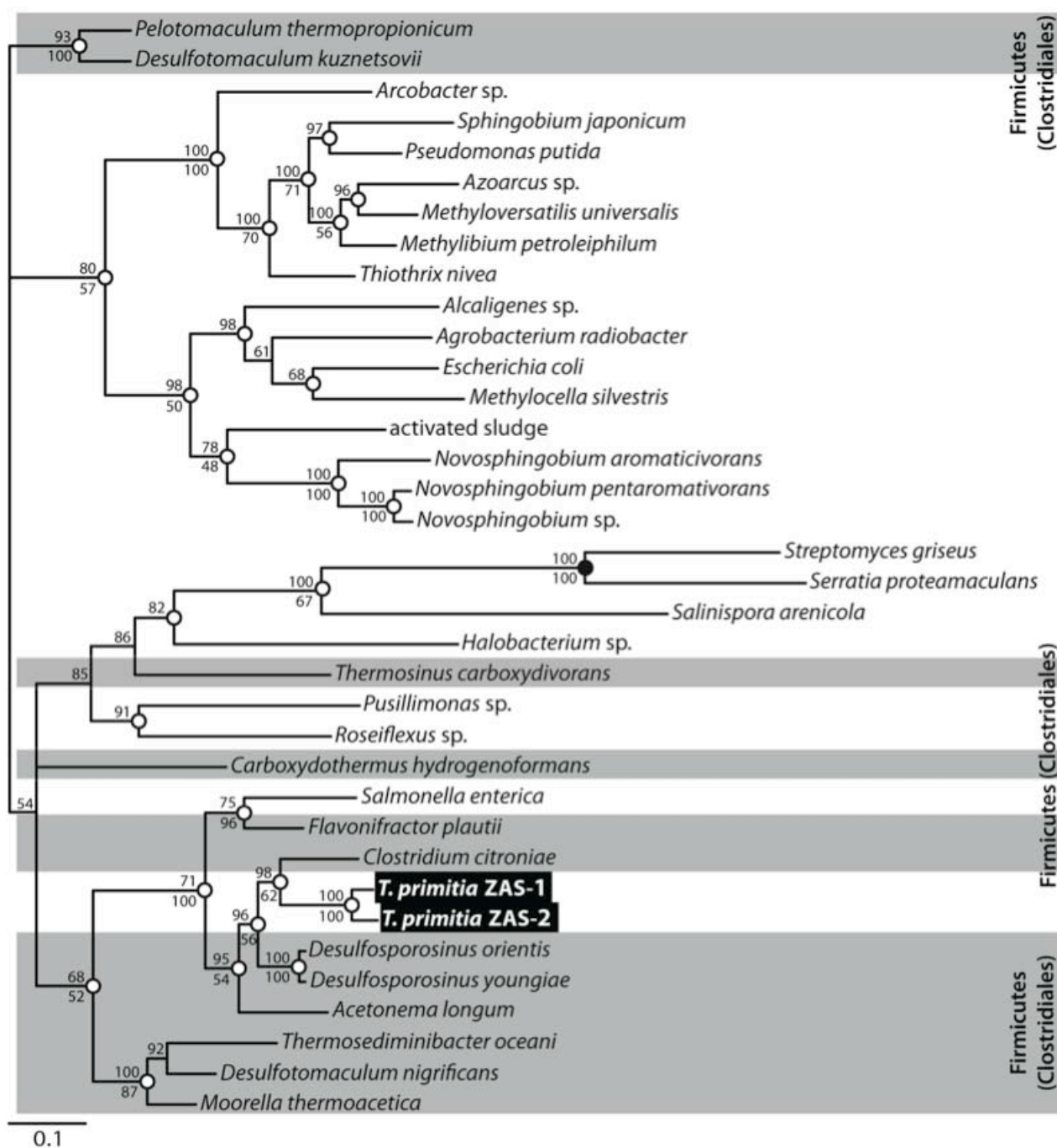


Fig. 3A-4: Phylogenetic position of *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 acetaldehyde dehydrogenase (PF01118 and PF09290, Step 5). Bayesian protein phylogenetic analysis (279 trees from 111,500 generations; PSRF = 1.004; average standard deviation of split frequencies = 0.018287) is based on 259 unambiguously aligned amino acid positions of a 291 amino acid-long protein. Bayes values (when greater than 50) are reported above the nodes. Phylip PROTPARS maximum

parsimony support after analysis of 1000 bootstraps (when greater than 50%) is reported below nodes. Shaded circles (●) indicate nodes supported by both maximum parsimony and Fitch distance matrix methods. Open circles (○) indicate nodes supported by one of those methods. Scale bar indicates distance depicted as 0.1 amino acid changes per alignment position.

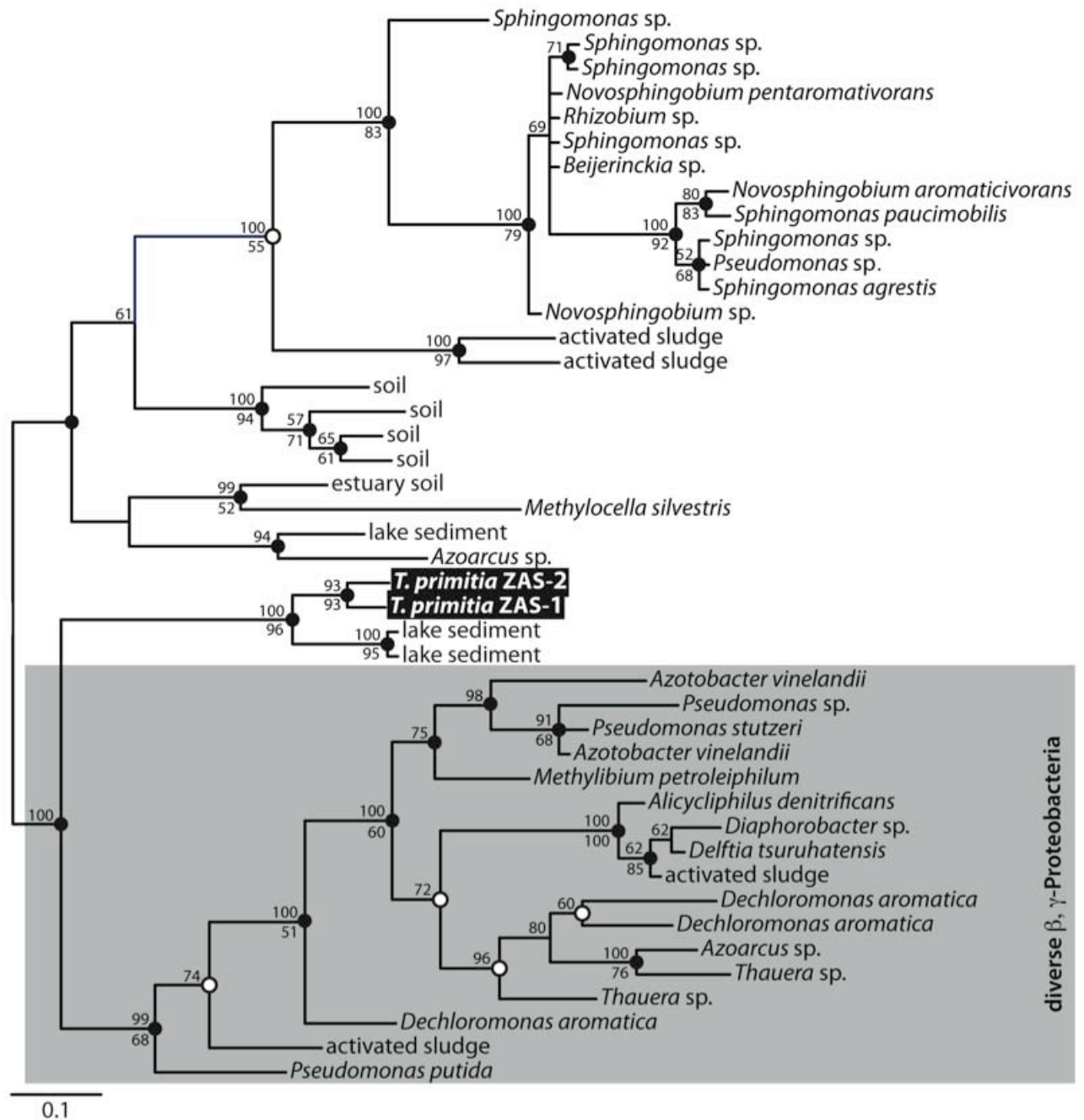


Fig. 3A-5: Phylogenetic position of *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 catechol 2,3-dioxygenase N-terminal Domain (PF00903). Bayesian protein phylogenetic analysis (220 trees from 88,000 generations; PSRF = 0.999; average standard deviation of split frequencies = 0.014790) is based on 56 unambiguously aligned amino acid positions of a 64 amino acid-long domain. Bayes values (when greater than 50) are reported above the nodes. Phylip PROTPARS maximum parsimony support after analysis of 1000 bootstraps (when greater than 50%) is reported below nodes. Shaded circles (●) indicate nodes supported by both maximum parsimony and Fitch distance matrix methods. Open circles (○) indicate nodes supported by one of those methods. Scale bar indicates distance depicted as 0.1 amino acid changes per alignment position.

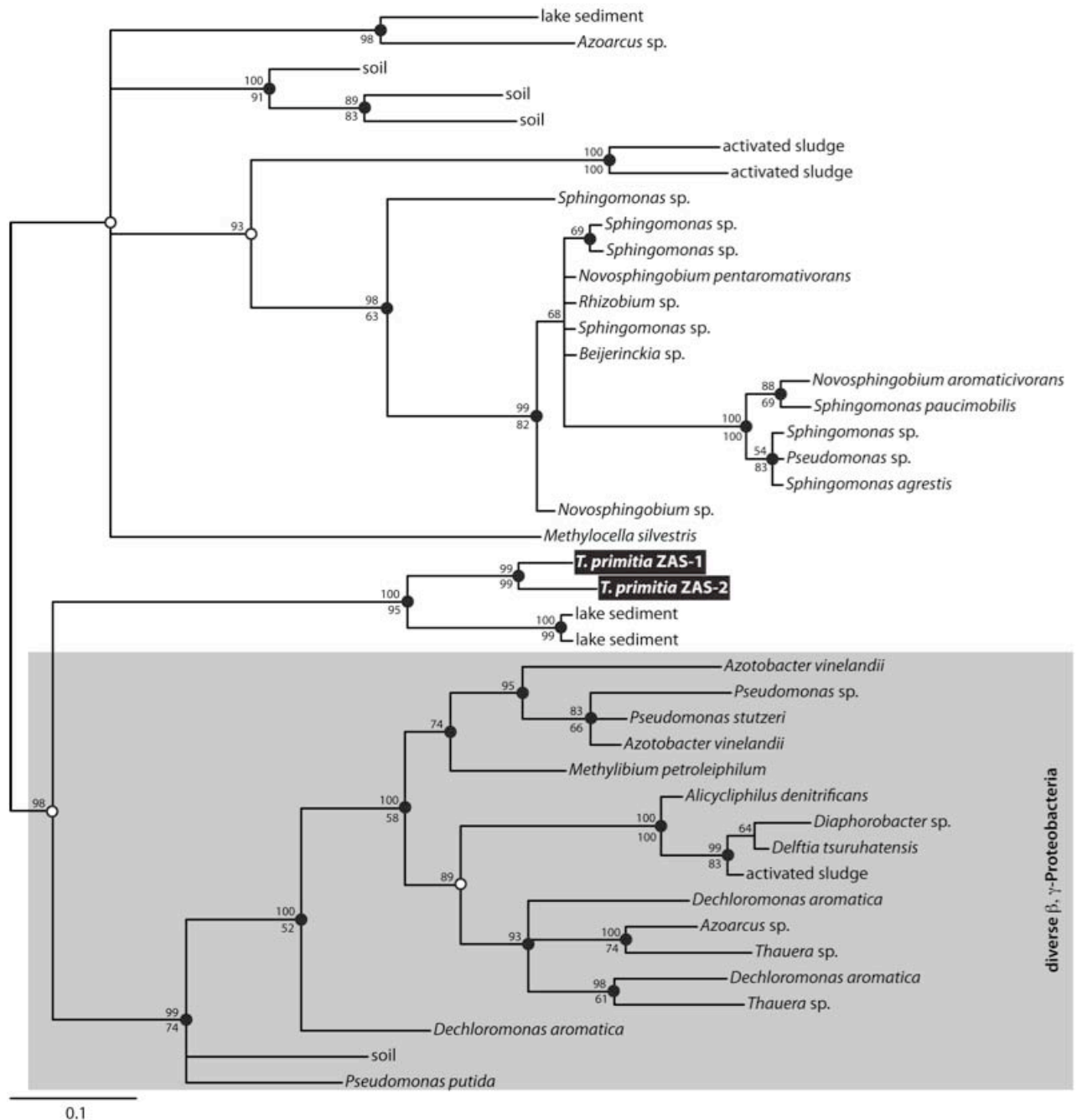


Fig. 3A-6: Phylogenetic position of *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 catechol 2,3-dioxygenase N-terminal Domain (PF00903) with extra-domain region. Bayesian protein phylogenetic analysis (600 trees from 240,000 generations; PSRF = 1.000; average standard deviation of split frequencies = 0.010855) is based on 67 unambiguously aligned amino acid positions of a 68 amino acid-long region. Bayes values (when greater than 50) are reported above the nodes. Phylip PROTPARS maximum parsimony support after analysis of 1000 bootstraps (when greater than 50%) is reported below nodes. Shaded circles (●) indicate nodes supported by both maximum parsimony and Fitch distance matrix methods. Open circles (○) indicate nodes supported by one of those methods. Scale bar indicates distance depicted as 0.1 amino acid changes per alignment position.

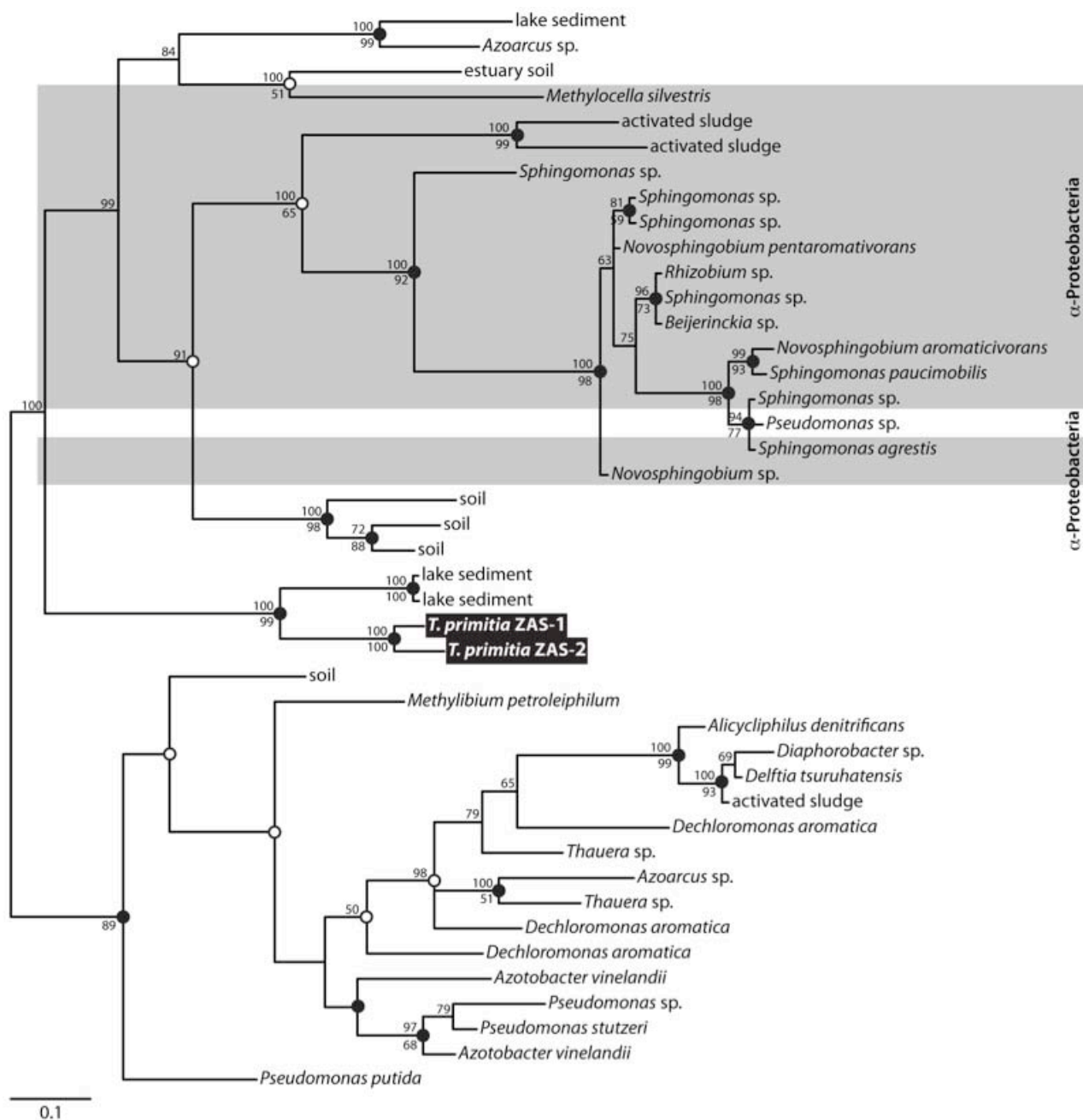


Fig. 3A-7: Phylogenetic position of *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 catechol 2,3-dioxygenase N-terminal Domain (PF00903) with intra-domain region. Bayesian protein phylogenetic analysis (375 trees from 150,000 generations; PSRF = 1.000; average standard deviation of split frequencies = 0.010443) is based on 88 unambiguously aligned amino acid positions of a 139 amino acid-long region. Bayes values (when greater than 50) are reported above the nodes. Phylip PROTPARS maximum parsimony support after analysis of 1000 bootstraps (when greater than 50%) is reported below nodes. Shaded circles (●) indicate nodes supported by both maximum parsimony and Fitch distance matrix methods. Open circles (○)

indicate nodes supported by one of those methods. Scale bar indicates distance depicted as 0.1 amino acid changes per alignment position.

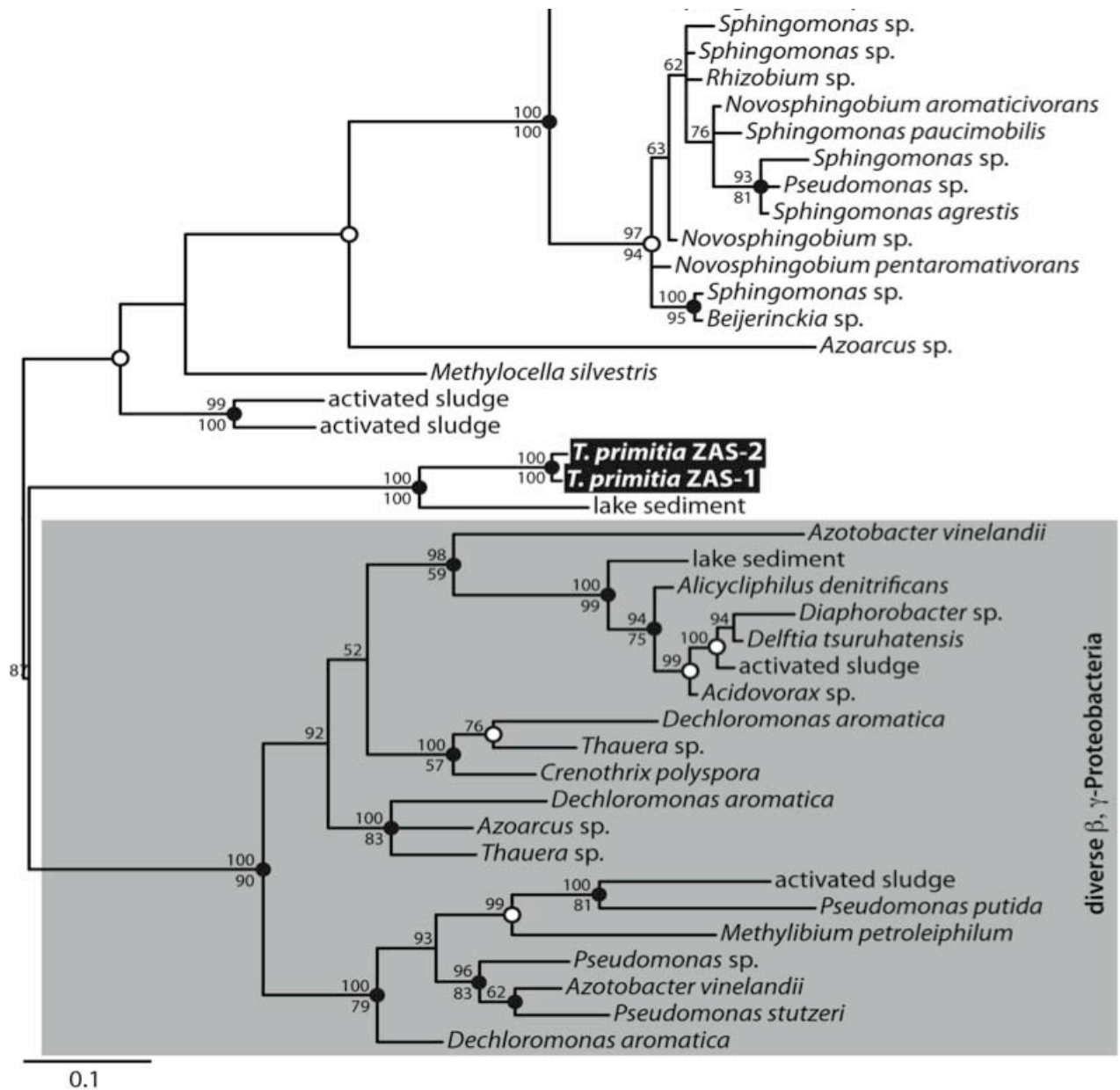


Fig. 3A-8: Phylogenetic position of *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 catechol 2,3-dioxygenase C-terminal Domain (PF00903). Bayesian protein phylogenetic analysis (350 trees from 140,000 generations; PSRF = 1.000; average standard deviation of split frequencies = 0.014588) is based on 115 unambiguously aligned amino acid positions of a 116 amino acid-long domain. Bayes values (when greater than 50) are reported above the nodes. Phylip PROTPARS maximum parsimony support after analysis of 1000 bootstraps (when greater than 50%) is reported below nodes. Shaded circles (●) indicate nodes supported by both maximum parsimony and Fitch distance matrix methods. Open circles (○) indicate nodes supported by one of those methods. Scale bar indicates distance depicted as 0.1 amino acid changes per alignment position.

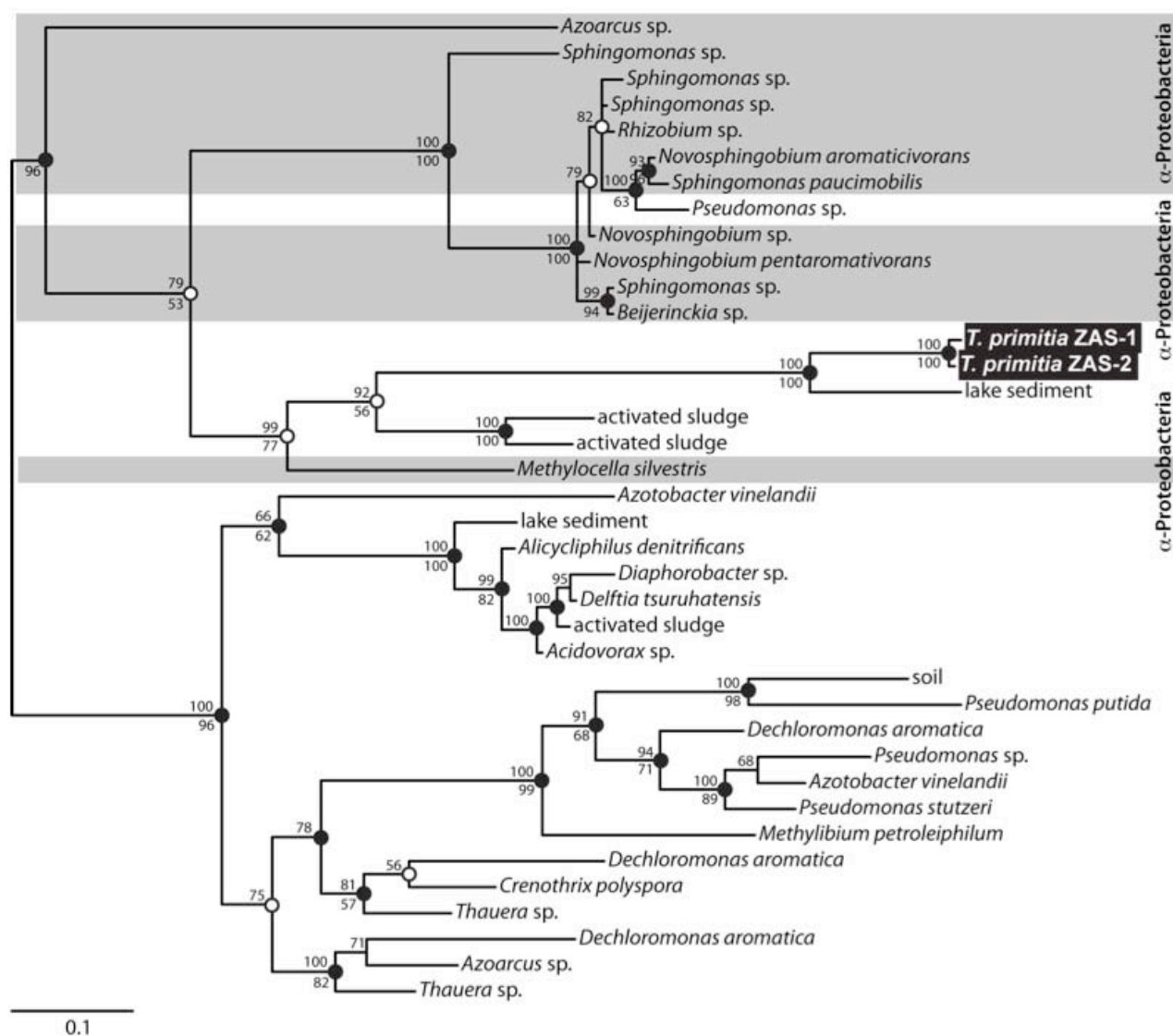


Fig. 3A-9: Phylogenetic position of *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 catechol 2,3-dioxygenase C-terminal Domain (PF00903) with extra-domain region. Bayesian protein phylogenetic analysis (450 trees from 180,000 generations; PSRF = 1.000; average standard deviation of split frequencies = 0.010860) is based on 155 unambiguously aligned amino acid positions of a 158 amino acid-long region. Bayes values (when greater than 50) are reported above the nodes. Phylip PROTPARS maximum parsimony support after analysis of 1000 bootstraps (when greater than 50%) is reported below nodes. Shaded circles (●) indicate nodes supported by both maximum parsimony and Fitch distance matrix methods. Open circles (○) indicate nodes supported by one of those methods. Scale bar indicates distance depicted as 0.1 amino acid changes per alignment position.

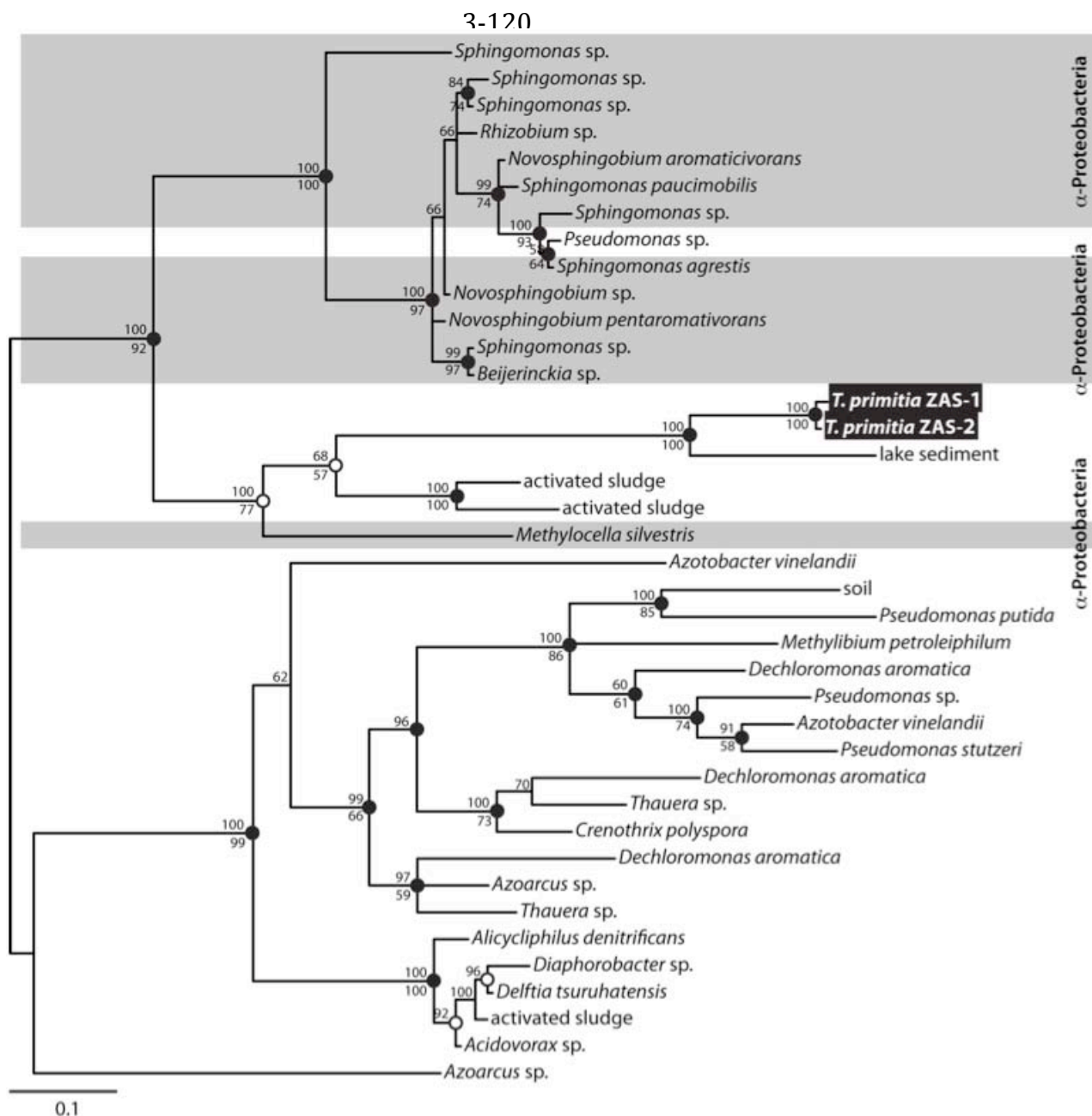


Fig. 3A-10: Phylogenetic position of *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 catechol 2,3-dioxygenase C-terminal Domain (PF00903) with intra-domain region. Bayesian protein phylogenetic analysis (500 trees from 200,000 generations; PSRF = 1.000; average standard deviation of split frequencies = 0.010844) is based on 140 unambiguously aligned amino acid positions of a 141 amino acid-long region. Bayes values (when greater than 50) are reported above the nodes. Phylip PROTPARS maximum parsimony support after analysis of 1000 bootstraps (when greater than 50%) is reported below nodes. Shaded circles (●) indicate nodes supported by both maximum parsimony and Fitch distance matrix methods. Open circles (○) indicate nodes supported by one of those methods. Scale bar indicates distance depicted as 0.1 amino acid changes per alignment position.

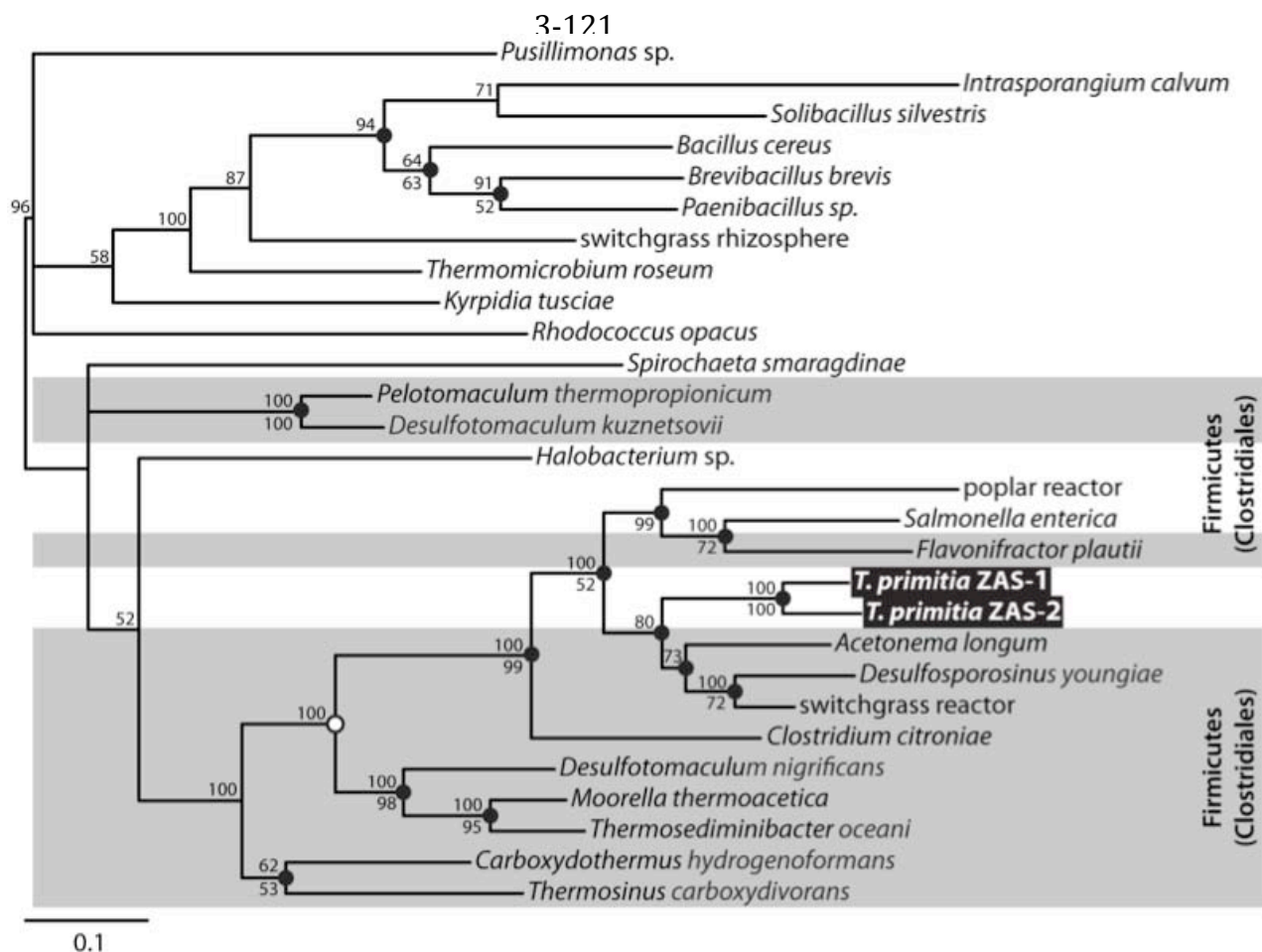


Fig. 3A-11: Phylogenetic position of *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 4-hydroxy-2-oxopentanoate aldolase HMGL-like domain (PF00682). Bayesian protein phylogenetic analysis (313 trees from 125,000 generations; PSRF = 1.000; average standard deviation of split frequencies = 0.009037) is based on 243 unambiguously aligned amino acid positions of a 232 amino acid-long domain. Bayes values (when greater than 50) are reported above the nodes. Phylip PROTPARS maximum parsimony support after analysis of 1000 bootstraps (when greater than 50%) is reported below nodes. Shaded circles (●) indicate nodes supported by both maximum parsimony and Fitch distance matrix methods. Open circles (○) indicate nodes supported by one of those methods. Scale bar indicates distance depicted as 0.1 amino acid changes per alignment position.

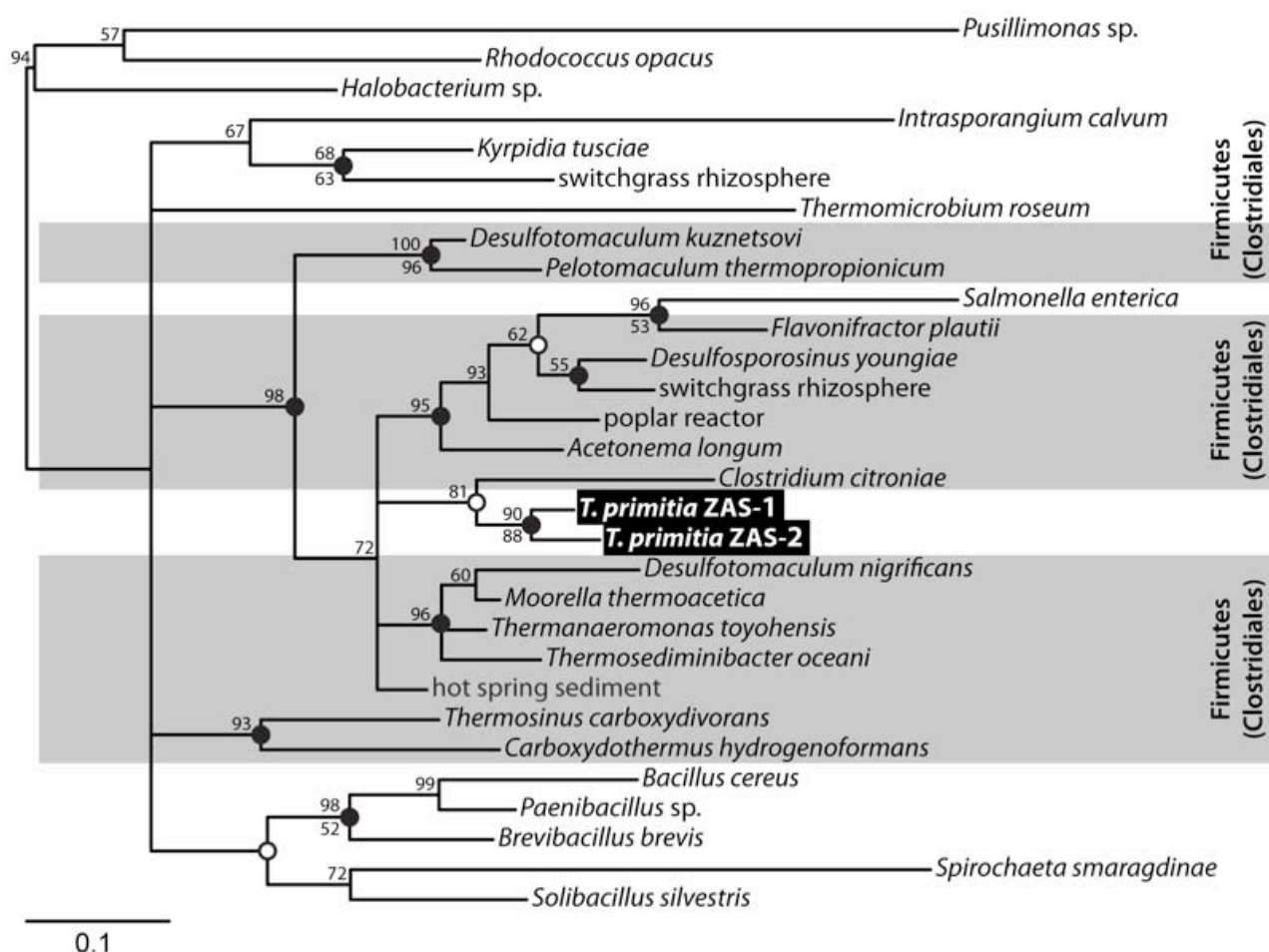


Fig. 3A-12: Phylogenetic position of *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 4-hydroxy-2-oxopentanoate aldolase DmpG-like communication domain (PF07836). Bayesian protein phylogenetic analysis (480 trees from 192,000 generations; PSRF = 1.000; average standard deviation of split frequencies = 0.016899) is based on 65 unambiguously aligned amino acid positions of a 66 amino acid-long domain. Bayes values (when greater than 50) are reported above the nodes. Phylip PROTPARS maximum parsimony support after analysis of 1000 bootstraps (when greater than 50%) is reported below nodes. Shaded circles (●) indicate nodes supported by both maximum parsimony and Fitch distance matrix methods. Open circles (○) indicate nodes supported by one of those methods. Scale bar indicates distance depicted as 0.1 amino acid changes per alignment position.

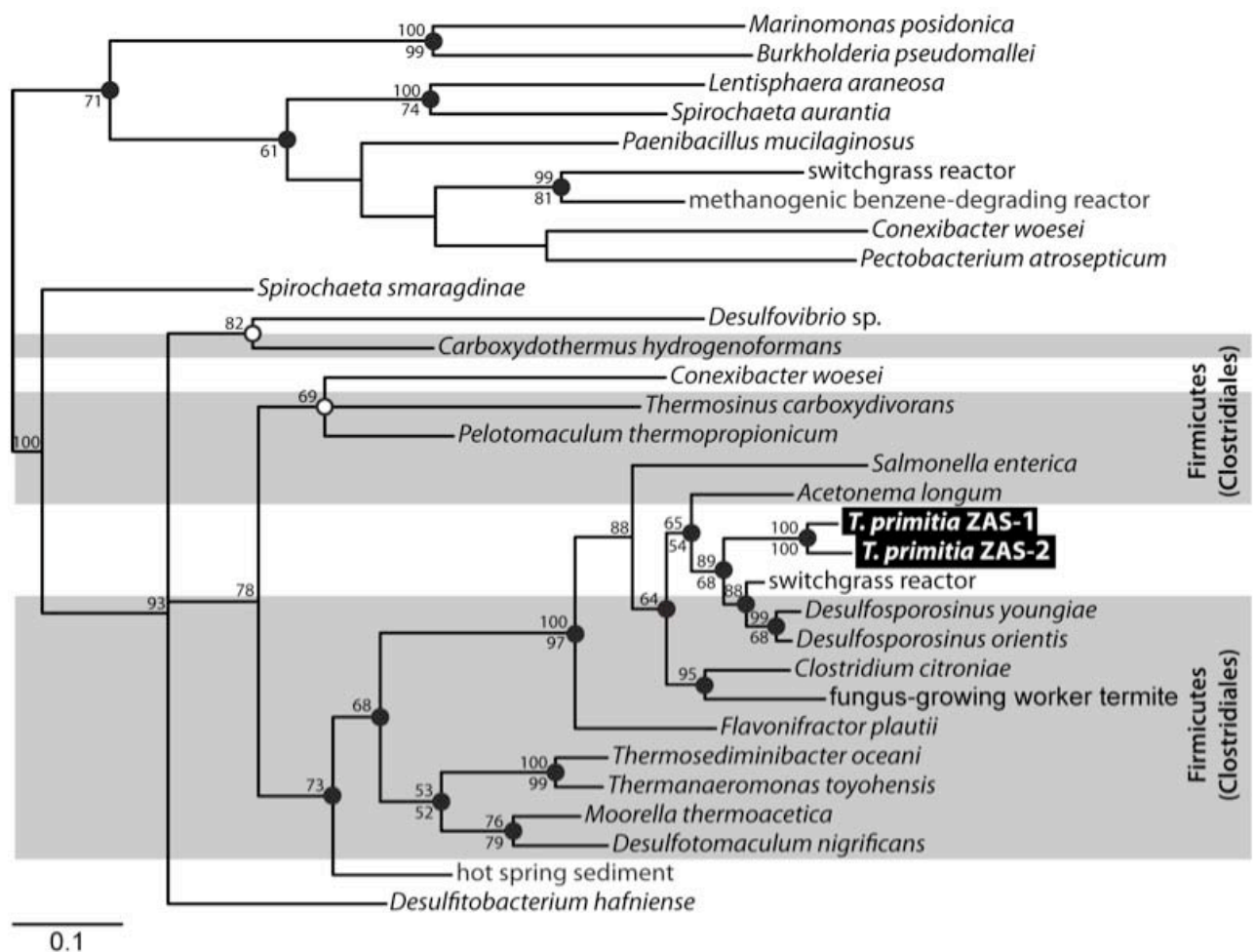


Fig. 3A-13: Phylogenetic position of *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 acetaldehyde dehydrogenase, NAD binding domain (PF01118). Bayesian protein phylogenetic analysis (123 trees from 205,000 generations; PSRF = 1.000; average standard deviation of split frequencies = 0.010781) is based on 110 unambiguously aligned amino acid positions of a 110 amino acid-long domain. Bayes values (when greater than 50) are reported above the nodes. Phylip PROTPARS maximum parsimony support after analysis of 1000 bootstraps (when greater than 50%) is reported below nodes. Shaded circles (●) indicate nodes supported by both maximum parsimony and Fitch distance matrix methods. Open circles (○) indicate nodes supported by one of those methods. Scale bar indicates distance depicted as 0.1 amino acid changes per alignment position.

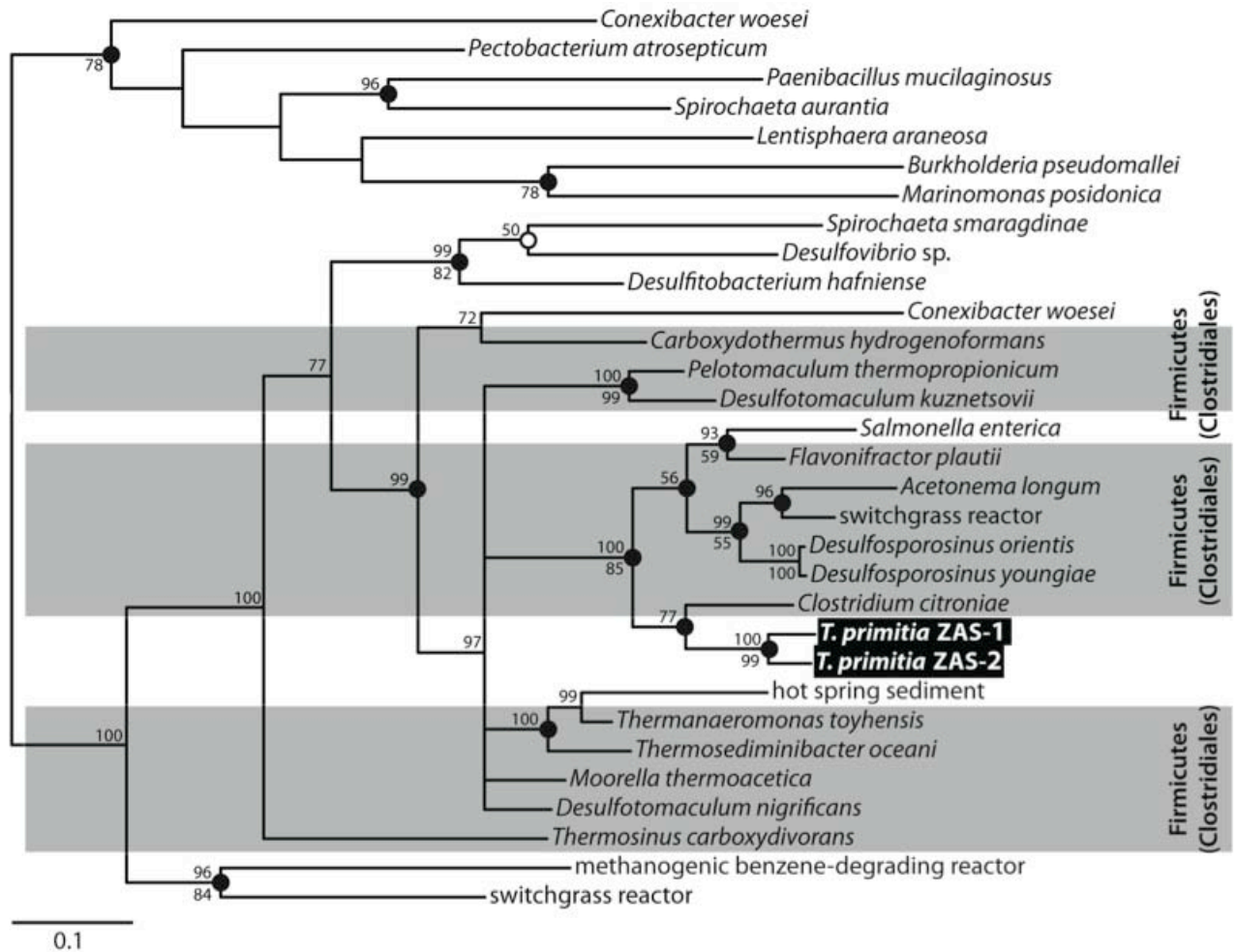


Fig. 3A-14: Phylogenetic position of *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 acetaldehyde dehydrogenase dimerisation domain (PF09290). Bayesian protein phylogenetic analysis (145 trees from 58,000 generations; PSRF = 0.999; average standard deviation of split frequencies = 0.013476) is based on 135 unambiguously aligned amino acid positions of a 137 amino acid-long domain. Bayes values (when greater than 50) are reported above the nodes. Phylip PROTPARS maximum parsimony support after analysis of 1000 bootstraps (when greater than 50%) is reported below nodes. Shaded circles (●) indicate nodes supported by both maximum parsimony and Fitch distance matrix methods. Open circles (○) indicate nodes supported by one of those methods. Scale bar indicates distance depicted as 0.1 amino acid changes per alignment position.

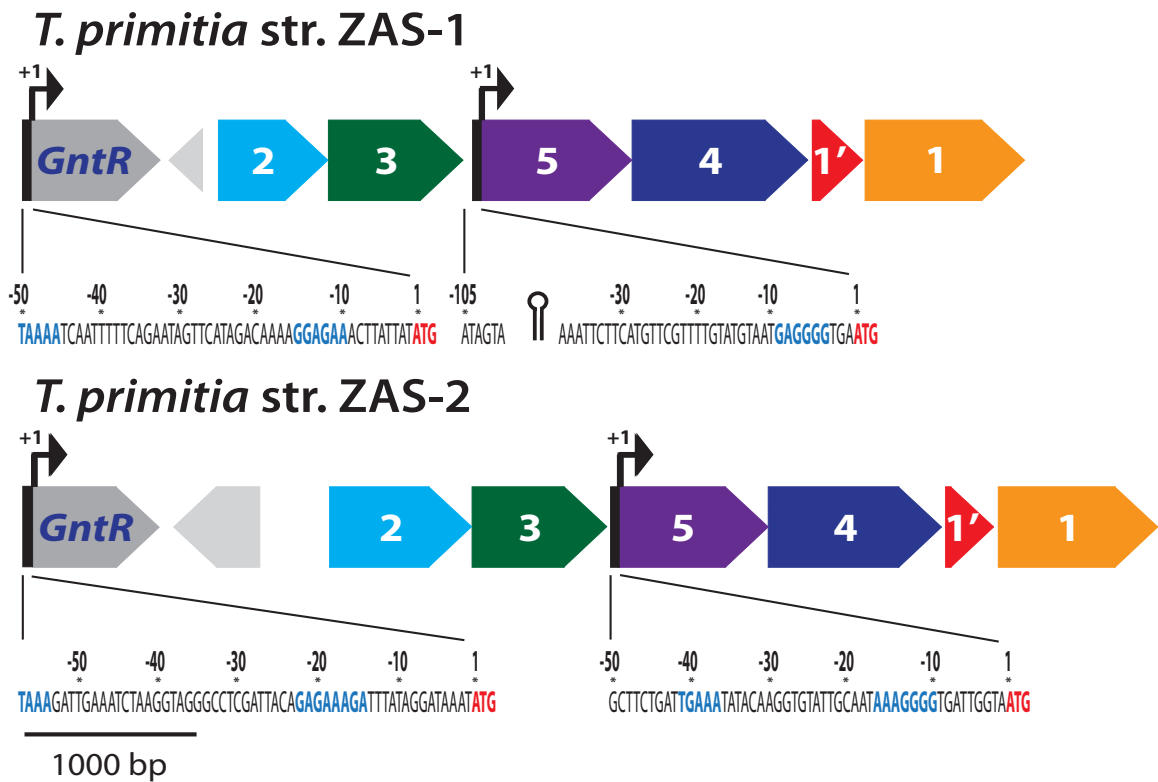


Fig. 3A-15: Transcriptional regulatory elements within the *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 *meta*-cleavage pathway gene neighborhoods. Promoter regions are black rectangles and arrows indicate direction of transcription. Nucleotide bases of the promoter region are shown with conserved promoter elements in blue and transcriptional start sites in red. Stem loop structure is represented by a hairpin-like symbol. Ferredoxin-like peptide (step 1', red), catechol 2,3-dioxygenase (step 1, orange), 2-hydroxymuconic semialdehyde hydrolase (step 2, light blue), 2-oxopent-4-enoate hydratase (step 3, dark green), 4-hydroxy-2-oxopentanoate aldolase (step 4, dark blue), acetaldehyde dehydrogenase (step 5, purple), putative regulatory genes (dark grey), and hypothetical proteins (light grey) are depicted. Regulatory families are noted.

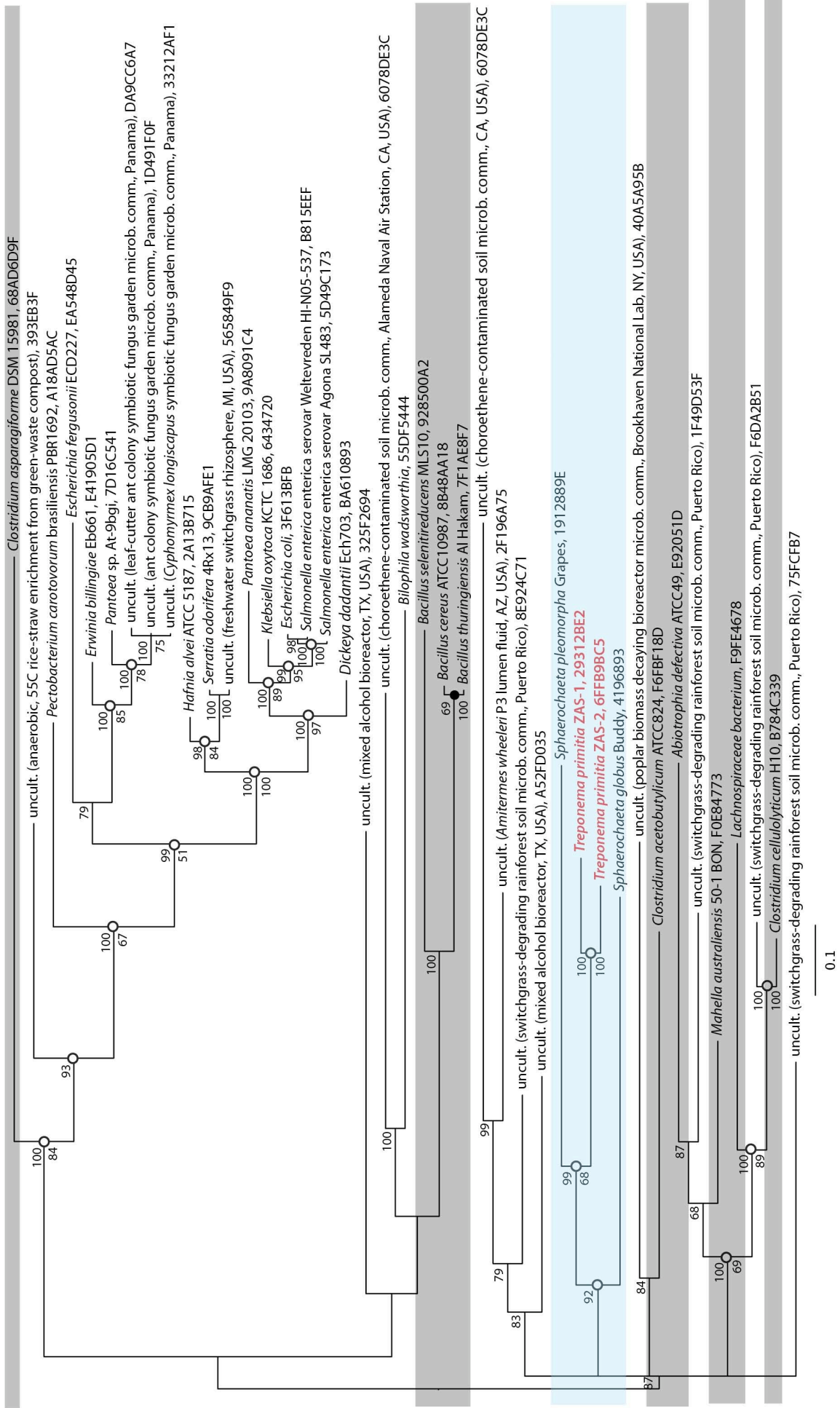


Fig 3A-16: Phylogenetic position of *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 *meta*-pathway associated GntR family transcriptional regulator (PF00392). Bayesian protein phylogenetic analysis (488 trees from 195,000 generations; PSRF = 1.001; average standard deviation of split frequencies = 0.015683) is based on 228 unambiguously aligned amino acid positions of a 249 amino acid-long protein. Bayes values (when greater than 50) are reported above the nodes. Phylip PROTPARS maximum parsimony support after analysis of 1000 bootstraps (when greater than 50%) is reported below nodes. Shaded circles (●) indicate nodes supported by both maximum parsimony and Fitch distance matrix methods. Open circles (○) indicate nodes supported by one of those methods. Scale bar indicates distance depicted as 0.1 amino acid changes per alignment position.

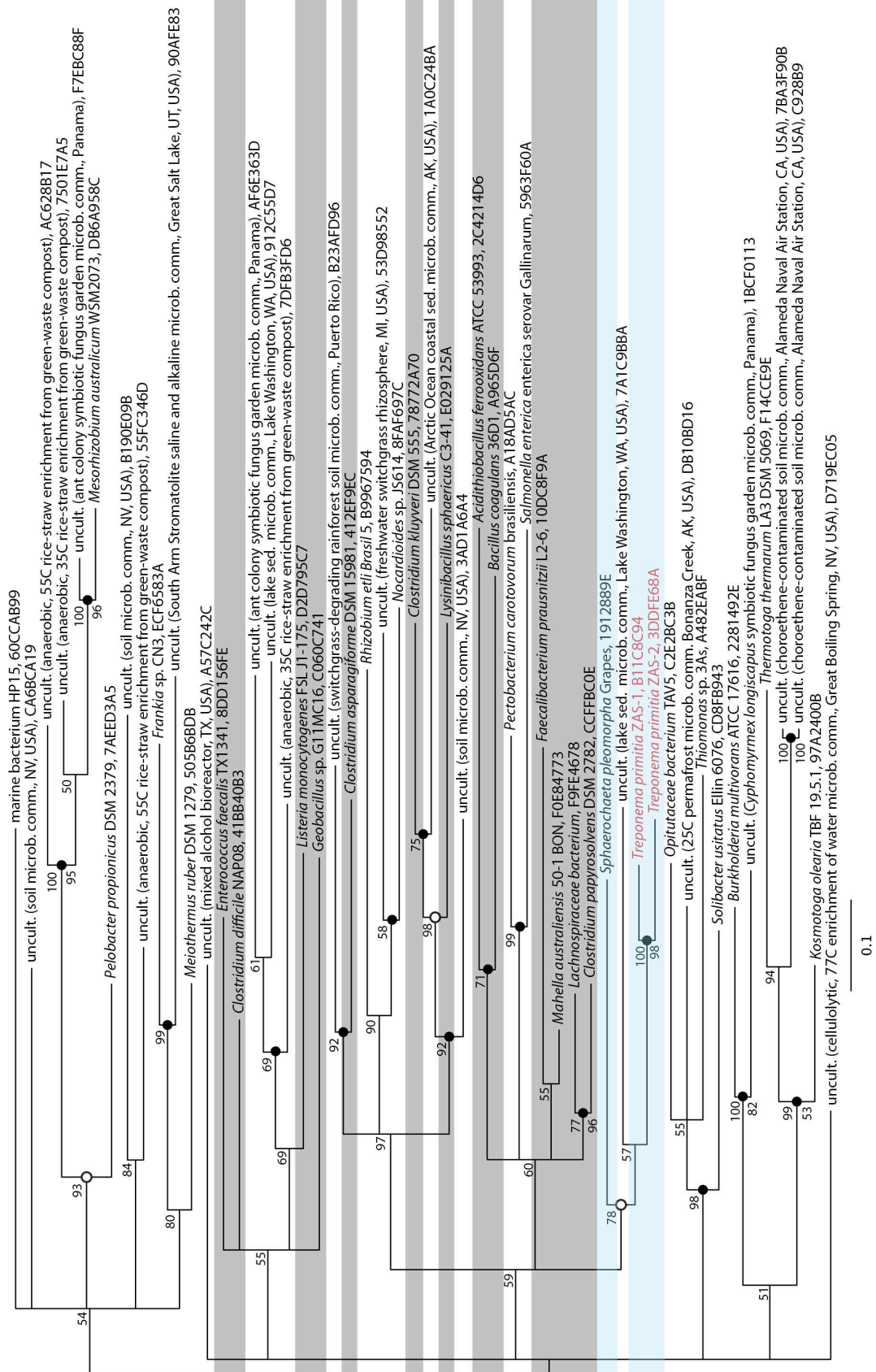


Fig. 3A-17: Phylogenetic position of *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 *meta*-pathway associated GntR family transcriptional regulator, Bacterial regulatory proteins gntR family domain (PF00392). Bayesian protein phylogenetic analysis (950 trees from 380,000 generations; PSRF = 1.000; average standard deviation of split frequencies = 0.025667) is based on 61 unambiguously aligned amino acid positions of a 63 amino acid-long domain. Bayes values (when greater than 50) are reported above the nodes. Phylip PROTPARS maximum parsimony support after analysis of 1000 bootstraps (when greater than 50%) is reported below nodes. Shaded circles (●) indicate nodes supported by both maximum parsimony and Fitch distance matrix methods. Open circles (○) indicate nodes supported by one of those methods. Scale bar indicates distance depicted as 0.1 amino acid changes per alignment position.



Fig. 3A-18: Yellow *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-1 cultures. *T. primitia* str. ZAS-1 growing in 2YACo medium under an 80% N₂/20% CO₂ headspace (Leadbetter *et al.* 1999; Graber & Breznak 2004; Graber *et al.* 2004) reformulated to contain no dithiothreitol (DTT) or other reducing agent, no resazurin (a redox indicator). Maintaining sterile and anoxic cultures, 10mM maltose was added to the right culture. Maintaining sterile and anoxic cultures, 10mM maltose, 0.5mM catechol, and room air to achieve a final concentration of 0.5% O₂ vol/vol were added to the left culture. These cultures were incubated at 25°C in a horizontal position without agitation. After 5-7 days of growth fluids in the left culture turned a distinct lemon-yellow color. Analysis of culture fluids revealed that the catechol-dependent yellow material had an absorbance maximum at 375nm consistent with the presence of the expected dioxygenase-mediated ring cleavage product, 2-hydroxymuconic semialdehyde. UV/Vis absorbance spectra were obtained using a Cary WinUV Spectrophotometer.

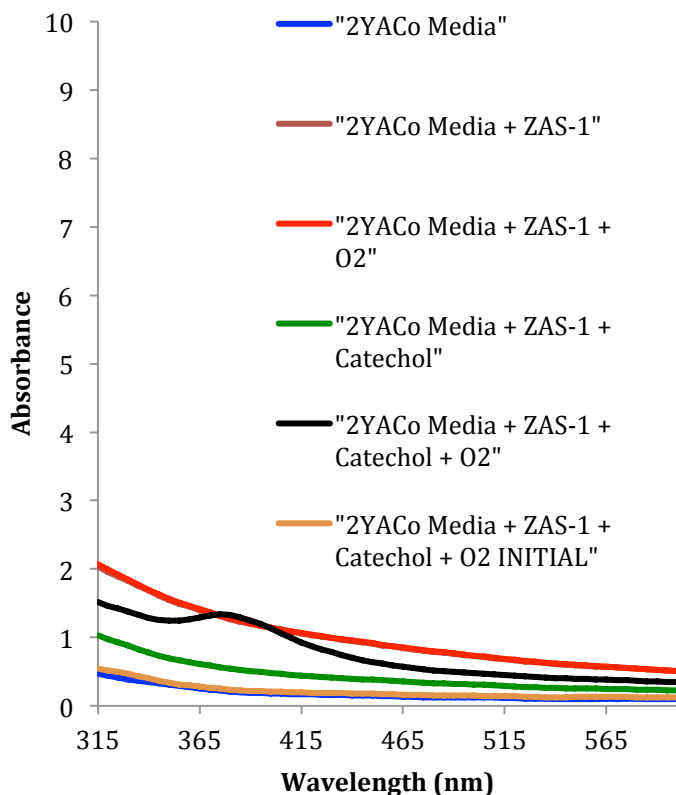
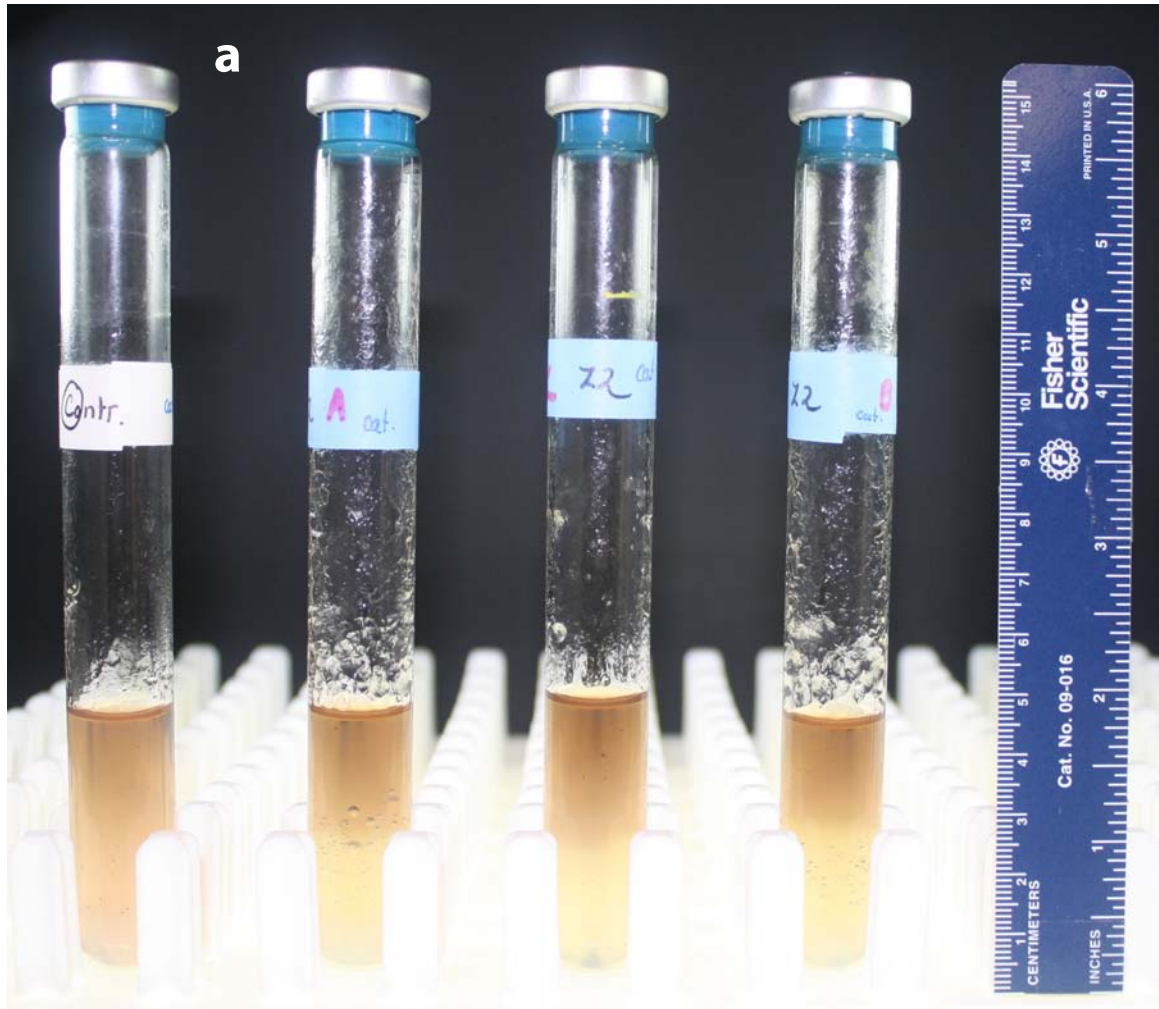


Fig. 3A-19: Absorbance spectra of *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-1 cultures. *T. primitia* str. ZAS-1 was grown in 5mL of anaerobic, 2YACo, liquid media with an 80% N₂/20% CO₂ headspace in 25mL butyl rubber-stoppered Balch tubes. Where noted in the accompanying legend, cultures were supplemented with 0.5mM catechol and/or sterile air added to achieve 0.5% vol/vol O₂ in the headspace. For comparison, an initial spectra of *T. primitia* str. ZAS-1 with 0.5mM catechol and 0.5% vol/vol O₂ (upon inoculation and 4 days before culture fluid turned yellow) is shown. Media lacked both DTT and resazurin, and no other reducing agents were added. Cultures were incubated at 25°C in a horizontal position and still. Data taken 4 days after inoculation. UV/Vis absorbance spectra data was obtained with a Cary WinUV Spectrophotometer.



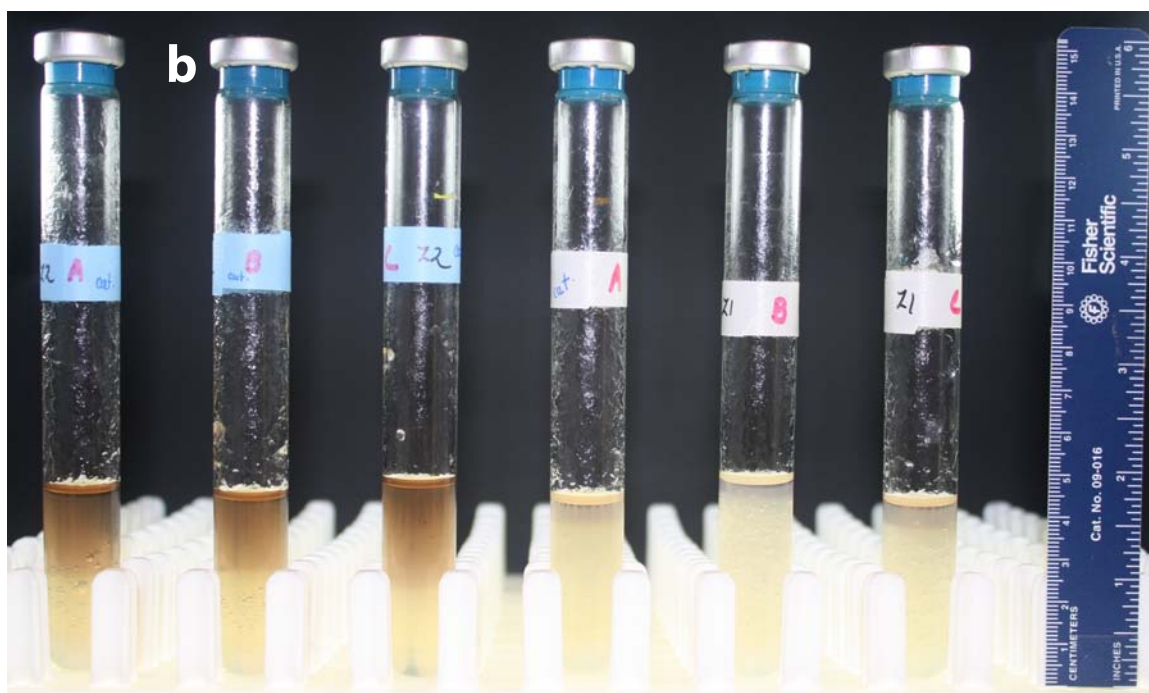
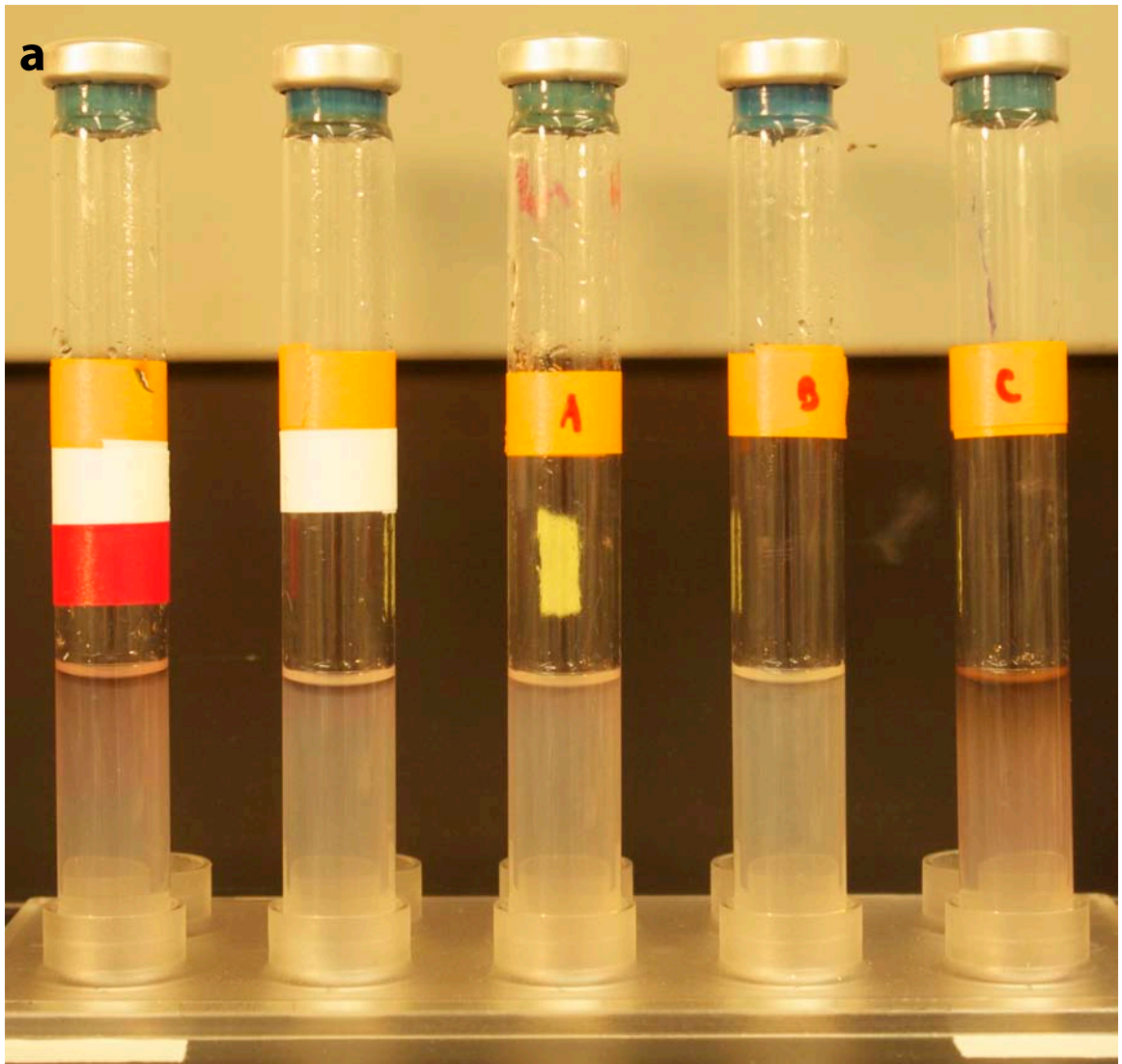


Fig. 3A-20: *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 O₂/catechol gradient cultures and controls. Oxygen gradient tubes under a headspace of N₂/CO₂/O₂ (70:10:4) and depicted after 7 days of incubation. Gradient tubes prepared as described in Materials and Methods above but instead of adding *T. primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 to cultures along the vertical length of the agarose, *T. primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 was added homogenously **(a)** From left to right: uninoculated catechol (10mM plug at bottom of tube) and O₂ control, and triplicates of O₂/catechol gradient tubes inoculated with of *T. primitia* str. ZAS-2. **(b)** From left to right: triplicates of O₂/catechol gradient tubes inoculated with of *T. primitia* str. ZAS-2 as seen in **(a)** compared to triplicates of O₂/catechol gradient tubes inoculated with of *T. primitia* str. ZAS-1. (for more thorough analyses of growth of *T. primitia* str. ZAS-1 in O₂/aromatic gradient tubes see Table 3-4. Fig. 3-7 and Appendix Fig. 3A-21a and b).



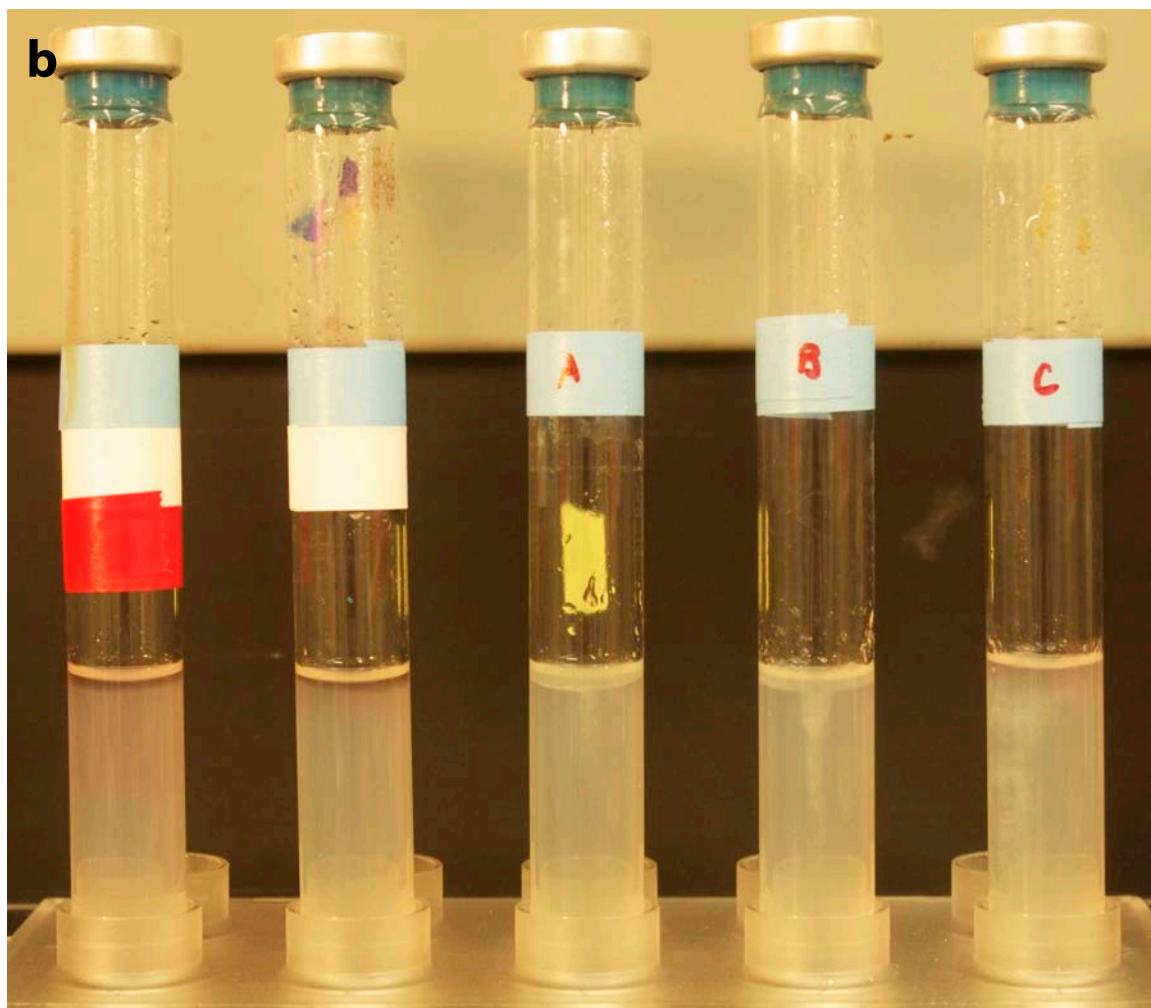
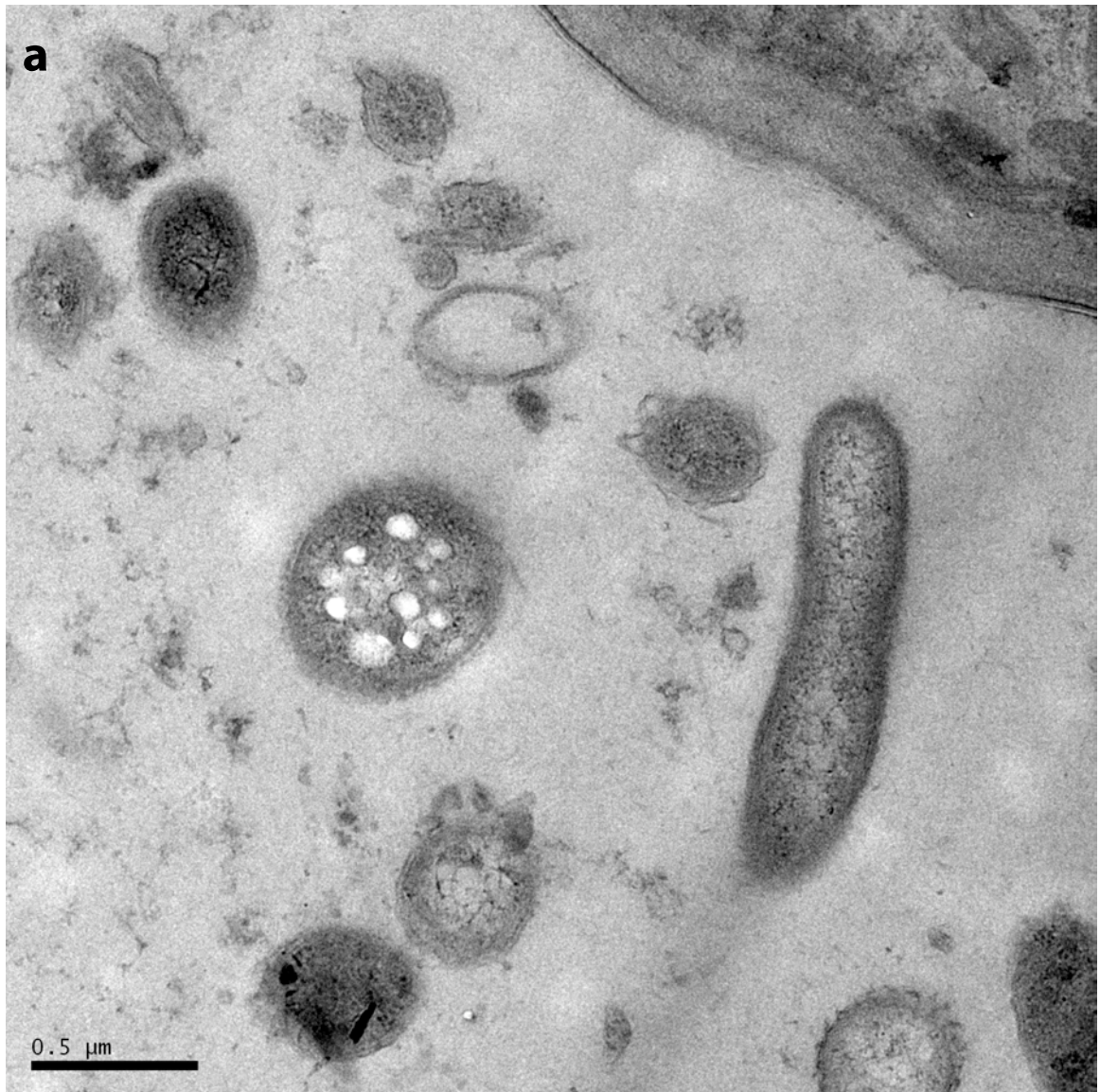
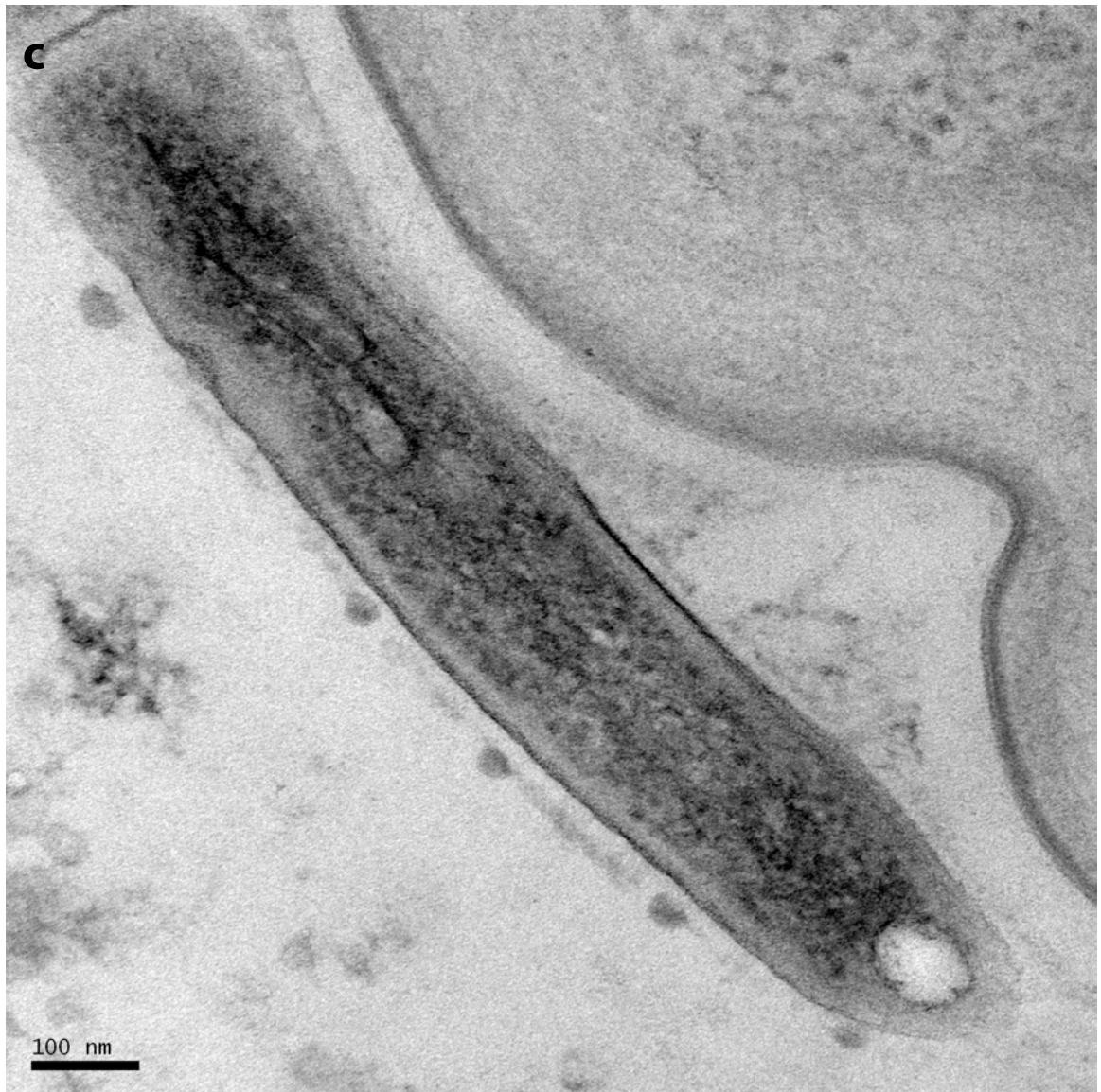


Fig. 3A-21: *Treponema primitia* str. ZAS-1 **(a)** catechol gradient cultures and controls and **(b)** water gradient cultures and controls. Gradient tubes under a headspace of 80% N₂/20% CO₂ (unless noted otherwise) depicted after 7 days of incubation. Gradient tubes prepared as described in Materials and Methods above. At the bottom of each tube there is a plug of **(a)** 10mM catechol or **(b)** water. **(a)** From left to right: uninoculated 4% vol/vol O₂ and catechol control; uninoculated catechol-only control; triplicates of *T. primitia* str. ZAS-1 inoculated in gradient tubes in which a 10mM catechol plug is located at the bottom but to which no O₂ was added. Orange = catechol, white = no cells, red = O₂. **(b)** From left to right: uninoculated 4% vol/vol O₂ and water control; uninoculated water-only control; triplicates of *T. primitia* str. ZAS-1 inoculated in gradient tubes in which a 10mM plug of water is located at the bottom but to which no O₂ was added. Blue = water, white = no cells, red = O₂.







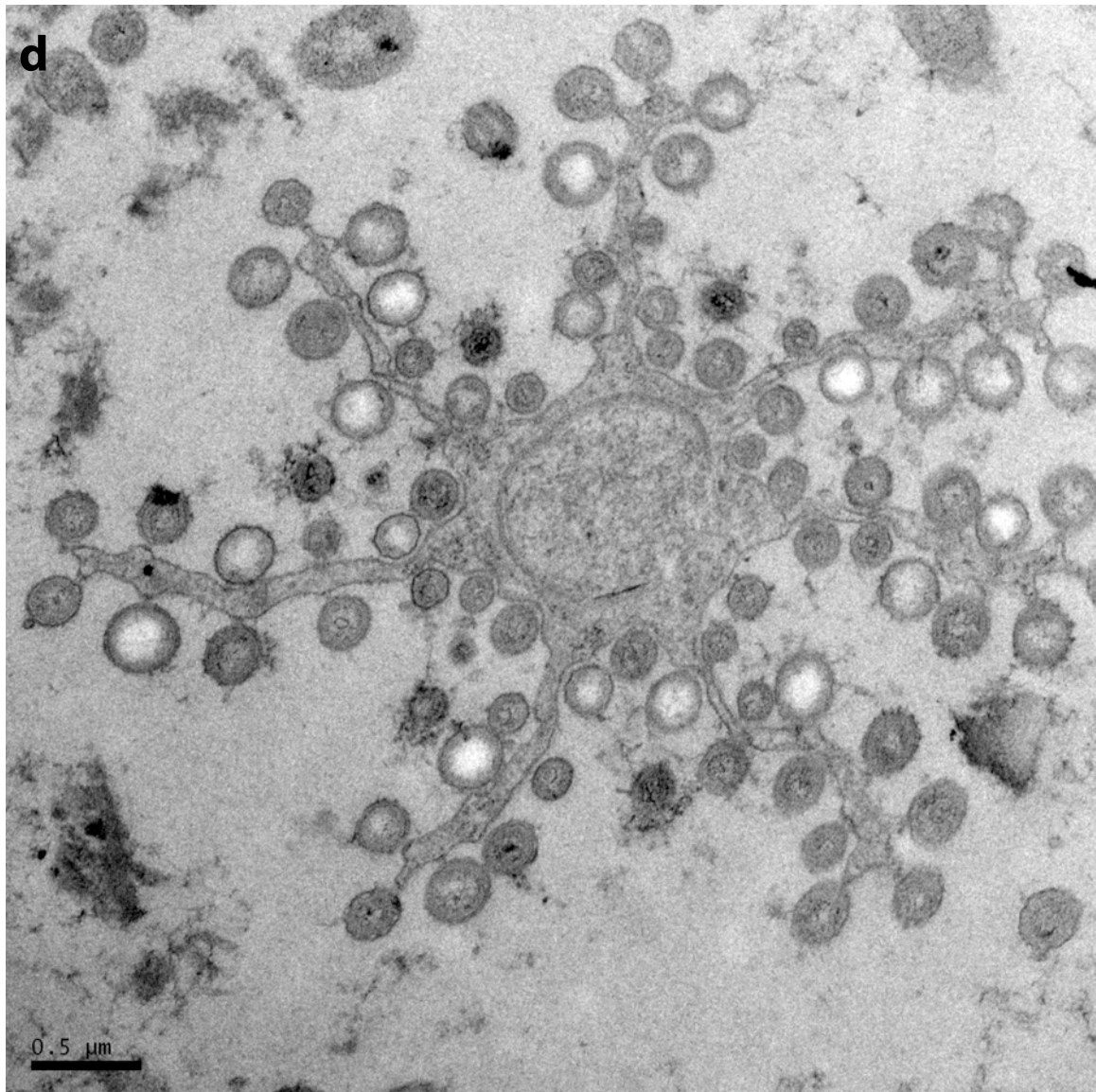


Fig. 3A-22: Transmission electron microscopy images of sections of *Zootermopsis nevadensis* hindgut (**a, b, c, and d**). The hindgut of a medium-sized *Zootermopsis nevadensis* worker specimen was dissected out and immediately fixed in 2.5% glutaraldehyde in 100mM phosphate buffer at pH 7.0 for 24hrs. Post fixation, the hindgut was washed in 200mM phosphate buffer and treated in 1% osmium tetroxide in 100mM phosphate buffer at 4°C for 2hrs. Next, the hindgut was washed in distilled water and stained with 2% aqueous uranyl acetate at 4°C for 2hrs in the dark. Then, the hindgut sample underwent a series of steps for dehydration that consisted of 30% acetone for 15min, 50% acetone for 15min, 70% acetone for 15min, 90% acetone for 15min, and three changes of 100% acetone for 30min each. Prior to resin embedding, the hindgut sample was exposed to propylene oxide twice for 15mins each. Then the hindgut sample underwent a resin infiltration regime that consisted of 2:1 mix of propylene oxide:resin for 1hr, 1:1 mix of propylene oxide:resin for 1hr, 1:2 mix of propylene oxide:resin for 1hr, 100% resin overnight, fresh resin 1hr, and polymerise at 60°C for 24hrs. Unless noted otherwise, sample

preparation occurred at room temperature under room lighting. An ultramicrotome was used to cut hidgut sample into <100nm cross sections. Images were obtained with a FEI Tecnai T12 transmission electron microscope. **(d)** Likely *Streblomastix* *strix* (images courtesy of Elitza Tocheva).

Method 3A-1: Visualizing *Treponema primitia* in termite hindgut.

To prepare cross-sections of a termite hindgut first carefully dissected out gut as to not disrupt epithelium and contents. Then, immediately fix it in 2.5% glutaraldehyde in 100mM phosphate buffer at pH 7.0. Depending on size of sample this can take 2-24hrs. Fixation is typically begin at room (or physiological) temperature, and after 15-30min is continued at 4°C. 4°C slows autolytic processes and tissue shrinkage but is not appropriate for all samples.

Post fixation, wash gut in 200mM phosphate buffer. Then, treat gut in 1% osmium tetroxide in 100mM phosphate buffer at 4°C for 1-2hrs, again depending on sample size. Next, wash gut in distilled water at least five times to remove all excess phosphate ions and prevent uranyl acetate stain from precipitating.

Stain gut with 2% aqueous uranyl acetate at 4°C for 2hrs in the dark. Then, the expose gut to a series of dehydration steps including 30% acetone for 15min, 50% acetone for 15min, 70% acetone for 15min, 90% acetone for 15min, and three changes of 100% acetone for 30min each.

Prior to resin embedding, expose the gut sample to propylene oxide twice for 15mins each. Then the gut is ready for a resin infiltration regime that includes 2:1 mix of propylene oxide:resin for 1hr, 1:1 mix of propylene oxide:resin for 1hr, 1:2 mix of propylene oxide:resin for 1hr, 100% resin overnight, fresh resin 1hr, and polymerise at 60-70°C for 12-24hrs.

Unless noted otherwise, sample preparation occurs at room temperature under room lighting. Use an ultramicrotome to cut gut sample into <100nm cross sections (Glauert & Lewis 1998). Hybridization Chain Reaction FISH could then be used to map mRNA expression to genes of interest (Choi *et al.* 2010).

Method 3A-2: qRT-PCR of each *meta*-cleavage pathway gene.

Although not conducted as part of the research presented here, utilization of qRT-PCR was explored as a means to gauge expression of each *meta*-cleavage pathway gene. As an initial step primers were designed based on *Treponema primitia meta*-pathway gene sequences. The following two sets of potentially useful primers for each *meta*-cleavage pathway gene have been evaluated sequence-wise (self- and hetero-dimer tools available in OligoAnalyzer 3.1 at www.idtdna.com) and await testing with qRT-PCR itself. A benefit of performing qRT-PCR for each *meta*-cleavage pathway gene is that a time course of expression can be obtained including information on under what conditions a particular gene is transcribed, how long does it take to be activated, and what substrates does it respond to, among other questions.

Ferredoxin-like peptide:

Set A:

FWD: 5' – CCG TGA GTT ATG GCT GCG CC – 3'

RVS: 5' – CCT CCG AAA TAT GGG CGG CG – 3'

Set B:

FWD: 5' – GTC CGG TGA GTT ATG GCT GC – 3'

RVS: 5' – CCG AAA TAT GGG CGG CGC TC – 3'

Catechol 2,3-dioxygenase:

Set A:

FWD: 5' – CGA CGC CAA GAC CCT GGA GG – 3'

RVS: 5' – GCG TAG CGT TTT CCA AAA CC – 3'

Set B:

FWD: 5' – CCG ACG GGA AAC GGC TTG CC – 3'

RVS: 5' – GGA AGA ATG CGA AGT GGT GC – 3'

2-hydroxymuconic semialdehyde hydrolase:

Set A:

FWD: 5' – GGA CTG GAC CAG GTT TGG GG – 3'

RVS: 5' – GCT TTT AAC AAG GTC CTT GG – 3'

Set B:

FWD: 5' – CTC TGG CGA TCA AAT ACC CC – 3'
 RVS: 5' – GTT CGT AAC CCC AAA CCT GG – 3'

2-oxopent-4-enoate hydratase:

Set A:

FWD: 5' – CCA ACA AGG TTC GGC TCA GC – 3'
 RVS: 5' – CTC CCA GGA CCG CTG CGC CG – 3'

Set B:

FWD: 5' – GGT TCG GCT CAG CGA TGT GG – 3'
 RVS: 5' – CAA GGG TCT CCC AGG ACC GC – 3'

4-hydroxy-2-oxovalerate aldolase:

Set A:

FWD: 5' – GAT GTT CGC CGT GGG CTT CC – 3'
 RVS: 5' – GCC AGA TTG ATA TAG TCG GC – 3'

Set B:

FWD: 5' CGG GAA TAC CCA GGG TGA GG – 3'
 RVS: 5' GGC TCA ACC ACA TCC TCC GC – 3'

Acetaldehyde dehydrogenase:

Set A:

FWD: 5' – CCA TTA AAG GTG TGG ACG CC – 3'
 RVS: 5' – GGG CAG CCT TGA GGA TAG CG – 3'

Set B:

FWD: 5' – CCA TAC CCA TTG CCT ACG CC – 3'
 RVS: 5' – CGA TGT TCG CCC GTG TCC CG – 3'

CHAPTER 4

Conclusions

As we discover more and more about the complexity of microorganisms, especially the intricacies of microbial populations and communities in diverse ecosystems such as the termite hindgut and the human body, research in microbial ecology requires asking and answering ***who, what, where, when, how, how much, with whom, and why*** (Mackie *et al.* 1999; Elowitz *et al.* 2002; Grozdanov *et al.* 2004; Hejnova *et al.* 2005; Maharjan *et al.* 2006; Tenaillon *et al.* 2010; Lencastre-Fernandes *et al.* 2011; Rosenthal *et al.* 2011; Abraham *et al.* 2012; Lebret *et al.* 2012; Ackermann 2013; Freeman *et al.* 2013; Jami *et al.* 2013; Koeppe *et al.* 2013; Watrous *et al.* 2013; Wessel *et al.* 2013; Rosenthal *et al. in review*). To address these questions, microbial ecologists should strive to combine and apply a myriad of traditional and cutting-edge bioinformatic, culturing, physiological, and molecular skill sets to *in vitro*, *in vivo*, and *in situ* work. Microbial ecology research should also be approached with an overall ecological awareness.

Explore diverse approaches to answer research questions

With efficiency and resources in mind, ***research approaches that combine several diverse techniques are effective*** in obtaining as complete a picture as possible of how microorganisms are influencing, and being influenced by, their physical surroundings. A common theme of my PhD work has been to test genomic-, metagenomic-, and bioinformatic-inspired hypotheses at the bench with traditional culturing and physiological, as well as cutting-edge molecular, tools. Prime

examples are my contributions to work led by Adam Rosenthal and Xinning Zhang investigating “ZnD2Sec,” the phylotype that is responsible for the majority (40%) of the formate dehydrogenase expression in the termite hindgut (*see Chapter 1*) (Rosenthal *et al. in review*). Specifically, I combined enrichment work with microfluidic digital PCR to successfully identify the termite hindgut microbial community member that encodes the “ZnD2Sec” phylotype as a deltaproteobacteria (*see Chapter 1*). In addition, my physiological experiments investigating potential acetogenic demethylation by *Treponema azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9 were premised upon genomic observations (*see Chapter 2*). Moreover, my bioinformatic and physiological work investigating the *meta*-cleavage catabolic pathway capabilities of *T. primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 were inspired by bioinformatic-based findings (*see Chapter 3*) (Lucey & Leadbetter *in review*).

Regarding the *T. azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9 acetogenic demethylation project, while physiological experiments were inconclusive in determining whether or not the strain can bypass the methyl branch of the Wood-Ljungdahl pathway and generate acetate with methyl groups it takes from wood, it is possible that additional diverse research approaches might achieve more definitive results. First, it would be worthwhile to examine the relevant *T. azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9 gene and protein sequences for Pfam domains and residues required for functionality or, alternatively, mutations in these key domains and residues (*see Chapter 2*). Likewise, analyses of promoter, operon, and other regulatory elements could also provide insight into function. This hypothesis could also be re-evaluated by “priming” *T. azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9 that has been sub-cultured away from its

original environment for over a decade with meth(ox)ylated compounds to “kickstart” this metabolic capability and/or decreasing the concentration of meth(ox)ylated substrate tested as the 5mM concentrations examined here may not inhibit growth but may indeed inhibit enzyme function. Directly measuring acetate production in *T. azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9 culture fluid over time using GC-MS, ICS, and LCMS, and/or tracing radio-labeled methyl groups into possible acetate generated by the strain, could alternatives to measuring growth yield changes (*see Chapters 2 and 3*). qRT-PCR of relevant genes and cloning/expression/ enzyme activity assay work could also measure activity, expression, or lack thereof of these relevant genes (*see Chapter 2*).

If with additional work the hypothesis that *T. azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9 is able to bypass the methyl branch of the Wood-Ljungdahl pathway and generate acetate with methyl groups it takes from wood is not supported, at least such experiments demonstrate that ***an organism, even with a complete set of genes representing a particular function, does not necessarily perform that specific function*** (*see Chapter 2*).

Regarding the *meta*-cleavage pathway project, activity assays for enzymes related to oxidative stress protection were performed with crude cell extracts of *T. primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 upon their isolation in pure culture (Graber & Breznak 2004). In so doing, activities for the hallmark oxidative stress defense enzymes, catalase and superoxide dismutase, were not detected and suggested that the *T. primitia* strains are especially sensitive to O₂ (Graber & Breznak 2004). Nevertheless, once

genomic datasets of the *T. primitia* strains were obtained, analyses revealed genes representing a complete *meta*-cleavage aromatic catabolic pathway (see Chapter 3) (Rosenthal *et al.* 2011; Ballor *et al.* 2012; Lucey & Leadbetter *in review*). In particular, the first step of the *meta*-pathway is performed by catechol 2,3-dioxygenase and uses O₂ as a co-substrate to cleave catechol-like aromatic rings (see Chapter 3) (Lucey & Leadbetter *in review*). While individual pathway steps are still being evaluated, physiological work premised upon genomic and metagenomic data have demonstrated the first evidence for aromatic ring cleavage in the phylum (division) *Spirochetes*. Catechol 2,3-dioxygenase and the *meta*-pathway might also represent a previously unknown O₂-sink in the termite system. This is an example where ***back-and-forth between diverse approaches*** allowed for a novel discovery (see Chapter 3) (Lucey & Leadbetter *in review*). Furthermore, GC-MS, ICS, and LCMS measurements, experiments with radio-labeled *meta*-pathway substrates and intermediates, promoter, operon, and regulatory element determination, as well as qRT-PCR of *meta*-pathway genes, and cloning/expression/ enzyme activity assay work are additional, diverse approaches that could be utilized to further evaluate complete *meta*-cleavage pathway functionality (see Chapter 3).

***In vitro* and *in situ* behaviors can be different**

By approaching research questions with diverse tools, microbial ecologists have the best opportunity to obtain a near complete picture of microbial behavior and experience *in situ*. Thoughtfully and creatively combining various approaches with an ecological awareness can also reconcile and/or minimize differences in microbial behavior and experience observed *in vitro* compared to *in vivo* or *in situ*. This is

because typically ***in vitro conditions are at best approximations of microorganisms' natural environments.***

In vitro conditions are typically suboptimal

One of my initial projects in the Leadbetter Lab was to develop a yeast autolysate preparation that improved growth rates of the *Treponema* termite hindgut isolates on 4YACo media (*see Chapter 1*). Upon isolation, *Treponema* doubling times ranged from 22 to 35hrs (Graber & Breznak 2004; Graber *et al.* 2004). After approximately a decade of continuous passage in 4YACo media, however, *Treponema* doubling times increased to between 54 and 77hrs. In media prepared with my new autolysate from Fleischmann's brand active dry yeast, doubling times of *T. primitia* str. ZAS-2 were restored to approximately 47hrs (*see Chapter 1*). While this is an improvement over recent doubling times, the termite hindgut turns over every 24 hours (Bignell 1984) and if *in situ* the *Treponema* isolates were to double every 47hrs, presumably they would be removed from the termite system. These observations, therefore, hint that *Treponema* grows with a doubling time under 24hrs *in situ* and that current culture conditions are suboptimal.

In vitro vs. in situ ecology

In addition to thoughtfully and creatively combining diverse research approaches, ***when studying complex microbial communities such as the termite hindgut microbial community and human microbiome, it is important to also approach research with an overall ecological awareness.*** For instance, physiological experiments to evaluate acetogenic demethylation by *Treponema azotonutricium*

str. ZAS-9 and putative *meta*-cleavage catabolic pathway capabilities of *T. primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 by observing increases in growth yield of experimental cultures, were inconclusive (*see Chapters 2 and 3*) (Lucey & Leadbetter *in review*). When considering these three *Treponema* isolates in the context of the termite hindgut environment and their relationships with both their termite host and the other microbial community members, however, that possible acetate production did not result in increase growth rates and yields is not surprising (Graber & Breznak 2004; Graber *et al.* 2004).

This result may reflect possible *in situ* behavior by which acetate is not used by the organism that generates it, but instead is utilized by other members of the hindgut microbial community. For instance, it has been suggested that related to their symbiotic relationships with the termite gut microbial community and the termite host itself, *T. primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 and *T. azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9 do not convert substrates to products for rapid growth and efficient generation of cell material for themselves (Graber & Breznak 2004; Graber *et al.* 2004). Rather, they give the acetate they produce to the rest of the hindgut microbial community and their host, and display limited production of biomass (Graber & Breznak 2004; Graber *et al.* 2004). Therefore, perhaps better ways to gauge acetate production consist of measuring acetate production in *Treponema* culture fluid over time using ion chromatography, “feeding” cell-free *Treponema* culture fluid to other cultures that would demonstrate a marked increase in growth rate and yield from acetate, and observing co-culture experiments with *Treponema* and these additional organisms (*see Chapters 2 and 3*).

Similarly, while many *meta*-cleavage pathway-containing organisms perform preparatory or “upper” pathway reactions before proceeding to cleave aromatic substrates via their “lower” or *meta*-pathways, there is no evidence of “upper” pathway functionality in the genomes of *T. primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 (see Chapter 3) (Lucey & Leadbetter *in review*). While both *T. primitia* strains do not appear to have the ability to perform these preparatory reactions, it is quite likely that other organisms in the complex termite hindgut microbial community do and that they generate substrates for *T. primitia* (Lucey & Leadbetter *in review*). A useful experiment would be to feed *T. primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 cell-free culture fluid in lieu of aromatic-like substrates from an organism known to perform the “upper” pathway such as *Azotobacter vinelandii*, *Novosphingobium aromaticivorans*, *Novosphingobium* sp., *Methylocella silvestris*, *Sphingobium japonicum*, *Azoarcus* sp., *Pseudomonas putida*, *Thauera* sp., *Dechloromonas aromatica*, and *Methylibium petroleiphilum* (see Chapter 3).

It is well established that microbial activity can affect conditions in the surrounding environment (Brune 1998; Brune & Friedrich 2000; Watrous *et al.* 2013). For example, the *T. primitia* strains’ catechol 2,3-dioxygenase may function in part to help remove O₂ from the termite hindgut and, in turn, make that environment more amenable to the anaerobes residing there (see Chapter 3). This could be tested by examining the success of co-cultures with *T. primitia* and a known strict anaerobe, such as *T. azotonutricium* str. ZAS-9, to which O₂ and aromatic substrates are added (see Chapter 3) (Rosenthal *et al.* 2011). When working with isolates from a complex microbial community, therefore, one should keep in mind that *in its natural*

environment this organism may have peers who enhance or inhibit its function through their own activities (Brune 1998; Brune & Friedrich 2000; Watrous *et al.* 2013).

Despite the fact that *in vitro* can be very different from *in situ* behavior, however, I still advocate for enriching for and isolating, if possible, microorganisms from the natural environment. ***With more and more enrichments and isolates in hand, relationships in the natural environment can be better mimicked and manipulated at the bench via co-culture and microcosm experiments*** (Rosenthal *et al.* 2011).

In vitro vs. in situ physical parameters

In pure culture *in vitro* work, in addition to isolating microorganisms from their potentially symbiotic microbial peers, ***physical parameters of cultures are often disparate from those of the isolate's natural environment. This may influence function.*** In complex communities, it is important to consider that microorganisms can be located in a myriad of different microenvironments (Wessel *et al.* 2013).

Termite hindgut prokaryotes, for example, are either free-swimming, attached to the gut epithelium, or in association with the intestinal protozoa (Brune 2006).

Liquid, semi-solid, or solid media with different incubation regimes are rough approximations for *in situ* physical experiences, and culture design and set-up should attempt to replicate *in situ* conditions as best possible. Therefore, thoughtful and creative culture design and set-up should be explored and should involve providing various surfaces for growth, spikes of metabolites, fluctuations

temperature, pH, etc... depending on what is known about the isolate's natural environment. I have experience with this already regarding the finding that the deltaproteobacteria that encodes the "ZnD2Sec" phylotype in the termite hindgut is attached to protozoa, instead of being associated with wood or free-living (Rosenthal *et al. in review*).

Microorganisms that are classified together do not necessarily demonstrate the same physiology

My work with "ZnD2Sec" has taught me to ***remain open to the unexpected*** (see Chapter 1) (Rosenthal *et al. in review*). That "ZnD2Sec," the phylotype that is responsible for the majority of the formate dehydrogenase expression in the termite hindgut, is encoded by a deltaproteobacteria and not a spirochete was unexpected, as FDH is a key enzyme in the Wood-Ljungdahl pathway of acetogenesis and spirochetes have long been theorized as prominent acetogens in the termite hindgut (see Chapter 1) (Leadbetter *et al.* 1999; Rosenthal *et al. in review*). It is important to realize that ***not all members of a genus, species, or strain within the same environment share the same physiology*** (Elowitz *et al.* 2002; Lencastre-Fernandes *et al.* 2011; Abraham *et al.* 2012; Lebret *et al.* 2012; Ackermann 2013).

In my enrichment and isolation work to obtain methanogens and spirochetes in pure culture, I isolated a spirochete, *Treponema primitia* str. "ZNS-1," from the hindgut of *Zootermopsis nevadensis* (see Chapter 1). There is 100% 16S rRNA sequence identity between the *T. primitia* str. "ZNS-1" and *T. primitia* str. ZAS-2, and 99% 16S rRNA sequence identity between *T. primitia* str. "ZNS-1" and *T. primitia* str. ZAS-2, which is logical given that str. "ZNS-1" was isolated using the same media

used for str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 growth (*see Chapter 1*). Despite their shared 16S rRNA identity, however, these organisms may not necessarily have the same physiology. Further testing should be undertaken to compare growth on various substrates and under various conditions between this new isolate and *T. primitia* str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 (Graber & Breznak 2004; Graber *et al.* 2004; Lencastre-Fernandes *et al.* 2011; Abraham *et al.* 2012; Lebret *et al.* 2012; Ackermann 2013).

While it would be useful to obtain the genome of *T. primitia* str. “ZNS-1” and compare it to the available genomes of str. ZAS-1 and ZAS-2 to determine the similarities and differences between a strain of the same species recently isolated from the environment to those transferred in pure culture for over a decade, it may be difficult to discern if differences are indeed artifacts of natural vs. test tube environments, or because of inherent strain deviations (Barrick *et al.* 2009). It would instead be more valuable to obtain the genome of a new isolate right when that isolate is obtained, examine physiological parameters in pure culture, and then re-evaluate the genome and those physical parameters some years later (Barrick *et al.* 2009).

Looking ahead

Although the following questions were not addressed in, and were not directly applicable to, my PhD research, by keeping up-to-date with a variety of microbial ecology literature and brainstorming with colleagues I have learned that it is important when studying complex microbial communities, especially host/microbe interactions, to consider the following:

- Which microorganisms in an ecosystem are permanent and which are transient?
- How do transient microorganisms influence the other microorganisms, physical parameters, and/or the host of that ecosystem?
- While there is a lot of focus on how the microbiota influences its host, how is the host influencing its microbiota?
- What makes a host-associated microorganism act as a commensal vs. a pathogen? (Grozdanov *et al.* 2004; Hejnova *et al.* 2005; Tenaillon *et al.* 2010)
- Are numerically less-abundant microbial community members significant contributors to the ecosystem? (Freeman *et al.* 2013)
- Are microbial populations splitting into ecologically diverse populations? (Maharjan *et al.* 2006; Koeppel *et al.* 2013)
- How is an antibiotic, prebiotic, probiotic, metabolite, etc... added to the system affecting the host vs. the microorganisms? Are those effects similar or different for the host and microorganisms? (Cabreiro *et al.* 2013)
- What are developmental milestones of the model host organism being researched? (Mackie *et al.* 1999; Jami *et al.* 2013)
- Do host developmental milestones reflect microbial colonization and/or composition? (Mackie *et al.* 1999; Jami *et al.* 2013)

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